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**THE PUBLIC SECTOR LABOUR MARKET AND HIGHER**  
**EDUCATIONAL PROVISION IN SAUDI ARABIA WITH**  
**REFERENCE TO ASSIR REGION**

**BY**

**MOHAMMAD YAHYA AL-SHAHRANY**

**A THESIS SUBMITTED FOR THE DEGREE OF DOCTOR OF**  
**PHILOSOPHY IN PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION**

**IN THE FACULTY OF SOCIAL SCIENCES**

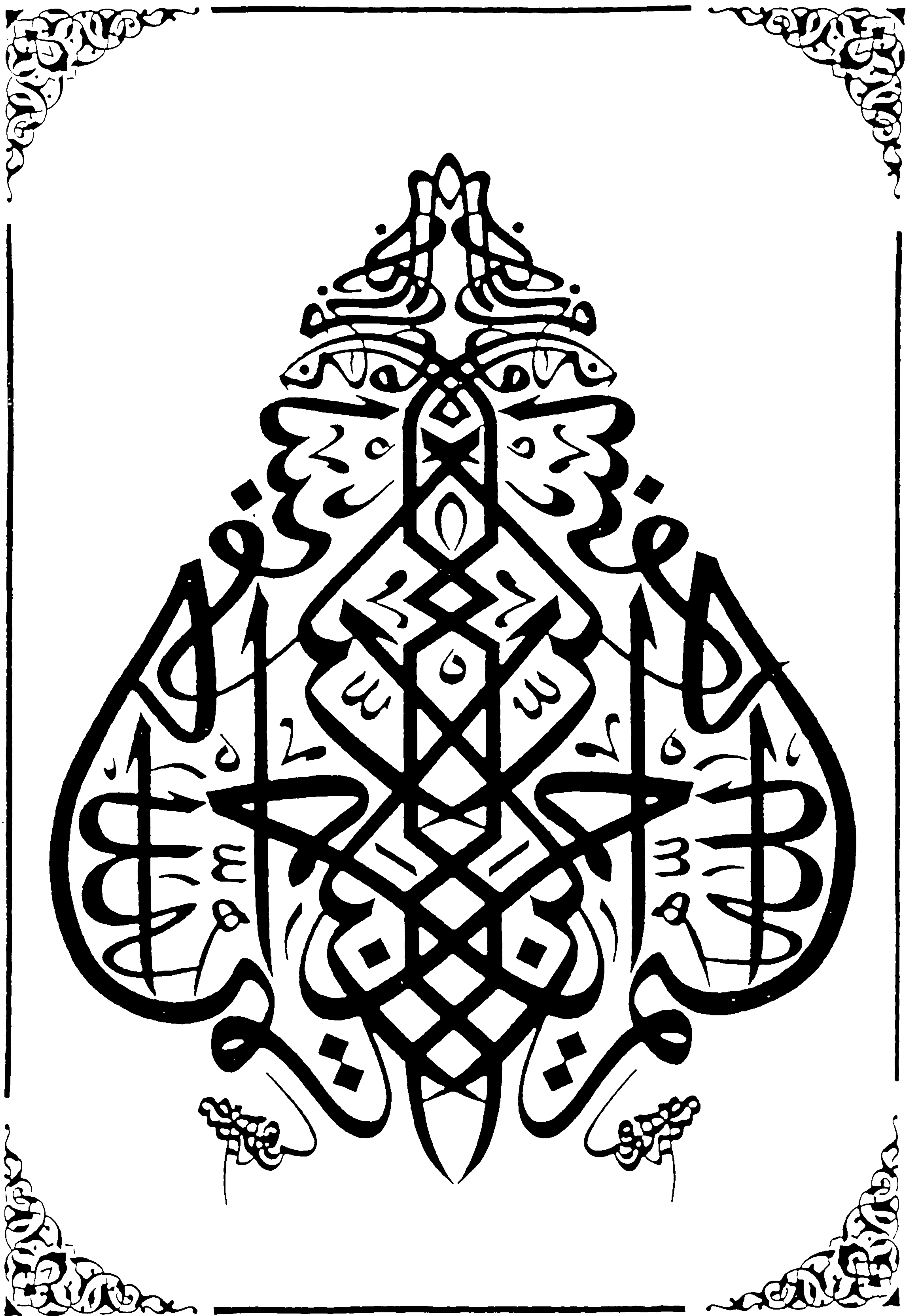
**UNIVERSITY OF DURHAM**

**(CMEIS)**

**FEBRUARY 1998**

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**1 2 MAR 1999**



## Dedication

To the soul of my father who passed away when I was three years old whose dream it was to give me a good education.

To my great mother who promised to carry out my father's dream and who sacrificed for me everything in order to help me to finish my studies.

To Professor Mohammed Saeed Al-Sha'afi for his endless support and guidance.

To the people here in the UK and in my country who were concerned about my success and graduation.

## **Declaration**

I, the author of this thesis declare that none of the material of this thesis has been previously submitted by me or any other candidate for degree in this or any other university.

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## List of Abbreviations

CPO	Central Planning Organisation
EDC	Economic Development Committee
GCC	Gulf Co-operation Council
GDP	Gross domestic product
GNP	Gross national product
GOTEVT	General Organisation for Technical Education and Vocational Training
IBRD	International Bank for Reconstruction and Development
IPA	Institute of Public Administration
KFU	King Fahd University
MNC	Multi-national companies
OJT	On-the-job training
SABIC	Saudi Arabian Basic Industries Corporation
SAMA	Saudi Arabia Monetary Agency
SAUDIA	Saudi Arabian Airlines
SPSS	Statistical Package for Social Sciences
VTE	Vocational Training and Education



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## Note on Transliteration

When an Arabic reference has an English title included in the text, the latter is given in the bibliography and endnotes of the thesis. When no such title is given, the Arabic title is written in transliteration, with an English translation, in the bibliography and endnotes. The transliteration system that was used in this thesis is based on that found in the Encyclopaedia of Islam (1960). For Arabic names, the Latin script form has been used which is most common in Saudi Arabia for the spelling of the name concerned.

Consonants						Diphthongs	
ء	،	ش	sh	م	m	و —	aw
ب	b	ص	s	ن	n	ي —	ay
ت	t	ض	d	ة	h		
ث	th	ط	t	و	w	÷	iyy(final form I)
ج	dj	ظ	z	ي	y	و-	uww(final form u)
ح	h	ع	،	Long vowels			
خ	kh	غ	gh	ي ا	â		
د	d	ف	f	و	û		
ذ	dh	ق	k	ي	î		
ر	r	ك	k	Short vowels			
ز	z	ل	l	—	a		
س	s			—	u		
				—	i		

For practical purposes, the following changes to the transliteration system used will be implemented:

- |                                  |                           |
|----------------------------------|---------------------------|
| (1) q will be used for ق         | (5) dj will be used for ج |
| (2) dh will be used for ض        | (6) sh will be used for ش |
| (3) th will be used for ث        | (7) kh will be used for خ |
| (4) <u>th</u> will be used for ذ | (8) gh will be used for غ |



## **ABSTRACT**

Saudi Arabia has experienced rapid economical development since 1970, which has been accompanied by a severe shortage of native manpower at all levels of skills and experience, from manual worker to technician to executive. In turn, this has resulted in a growing need for foreign labour with the latest estimates suggesting a figure of exceeding six million expatriates.

The size of the foreign work-force has resulted in a number of problems, both immediate and potential. These problems threaten the economy, the security and unique society of Saudi Arabia. The government, therefore, has attempted to implement a policy of Saudization to replace the foreign labour with indigenous people in the public sector. One method to achieve this goal is to ensure a supply of correctly-qualified Saudi nationals to meet the demands of the development plans. Higher education and vocational and technical education (VTE) can play a significant role in this policy.

This study explores and analyses the relationship between the public sector labour market, higher education and VTE and to what extent this relationship influences the implementation of the development plans and the Saudization programme. The study sets out to understand why the chronic shortage of indigenous personnel still exists and why the numbers of foreign workers continue to increase despite the vast amount of money spent on the development of a native work-force during the last 25 years. Also the research seeks to examine how the cultural factors and the attitudes of the Saudi students towards public sector employment at all levels influence student's attitudes to the type of education, training and work that they are willing to accept.

This study is intended to help and enlighten the manpower planners as to why the higher education system has not been able to cope with the requirement of the national economy in terms of quality and quantity at all manpower levels. To this end the strengths and weaknesses of the present system are highlighted. Thereafter, a number of recommendations based on the previous analysis are put forward.

# **CHAPTER ONE**

## **INTRODUCTION**

### **1.1. PERSPECTIVE OF THE STUDY PROBLEM**

#### **1.1.1. INTRODUCTION**

This study is concerned with the problem of manpower needs in Saudi Arabia, with a particular emphasis on the public sector in Assir region. In general this problem in the Kingdom has been well documented, perhaps most convincingly in the information about manpower in the Five-Year Development Plans of Saudi Arabia. These documents have indicated that manpower in Saudi Arabia is becoming increasingly dependant on foreign workers. The present study seeks to understand the problem by exploring the link between higher education and manpower needs. An important assumption of this study is that the higher education institutions of a country are meant to produce a work-force and provide the relevant skills for the needs of the country, if the import of non-nationals is to be avoided. The problem of a lack of skilled manpower in Saudi Arabia may therefore be related to the performance of the higher education institutions. The central question this study addresses is: why has the higher education in Saudi Arabia not enabled the country to reduce its dependence on foreign manpower: the Assir region is taken as a case study.

Other related questions explored in this study include:

- In what ways might the problem of the manpower needs be linked with the higher education institutions in the Kingdom?
- What is the response of the higher education institutions to the manpower needs of Saudi Arabia and to the Saudization programme?
- Why is there a lack of indigenous labour in natural science areas?
- Why is the number of non-Saudis in the work force increasing?
- What are the views of the managers in the public sector concerning the Saudization programme?



- Why are there less Saudi workers in some sectors than others?
- What is the level of intake in the higher education institutions?
- What are the nature of subjects offered in the higher education institutions?
- How are Saudi students distributed in the different subject areas?
- What are the work-related attitudes of young Saudis?
- Do some Saudis prefer to work in certain geographical areas?
- Are the young Saudis aware of the problem of skilled manpower needs of Saudi Arabia and the Saudization programme?
- How do Saudis expect to overcome the problem of a shortage of qualified and skilled manpower?
- What is the state of the current debate about this problem?

### **1.1.2. GENERAL BACKGROUND ON THE MANPOWER PROBLEM**

As noted above, the background to the project is the government's manpower reform policy as embodied in the first five economic development plans. The policies of which are stated as the need to expand the economy, to diversify the economy from its reliance on oil income,<sup>1</sup> and to strengthen and reinforce the Islamic character of the country.<sup>2</sup> Although these aims have widespread support, they have produced problems as the development of the economy has resulted in huge numbers of foreign workers, from Europe, the United States and Japan, as well as from other Arab countries and from developing countries, being present in the Kingdom. These workers are employed at all levels, from domestic servants and drivers to senior executives, in both the public and private sectors and in the majority of industries. The problem for Saudi Arabia is that foreign workers may have a negative impact on the fundamental economic development of the country. Furthermore foreign influences may undermine the Islamic values in the Kingdom.

#### **1.1.2.1. The Scale of the Problem**

The dependence on foreign workers is illustrated in table 1.1, using the most recent figures available, and shows the levels of non-Saudi workers in the employment of the



Saudi government. From the table it is apparent that in the education and health sectors there is considerable foreign employment.

**Table 1.1. Employment in Government,  
According to Nationality and Sector in 1994**

Saudi or Non- Saudi	Skilled Workers					Manual Workers	Total
	Education staff (Teachers)	Public Bureaucrats	Health staff	University staff (Teachers)	Judiciary		
Saudi	182593	158411	14533	8034	816	86992	451379
Non- Saudi	54802	10780	59595	5569	0	2928	133674
<b>Total</b>	<b>237395</b>	<b>169191</b>	<b>74128</b>	<b>13603</b>	<b>816</b>	<b>89920</b>	<b>585053</b>

Source: Kingdom of Saudi Arabia Civil Service Bureau, *Al- Khidmah al-Madaniyyah Fi Thalâth Sanawât* [Civil Service in Three Years 1992, 1993, 1994], (Riyadh: Murad Publisher, 1994), p.18.

In order to establish the level of penetration in both the educational and health sectors, further information is displayed in tables 1.2 and 1.3.

**Table 1.2. Total Number of Full Time Teachers  
(Saudi and Non-Saudi) at all Educational Levels, 1989-1993**

	1989		1990		1991		1992		1993	
Saudis	122923	64.4	135321	67.7	151366	70.4	157389	71.3	172655	68.4
Non-Saudis	67855	35.6	64682	32.3	63677	29.6	63385	28.7	79912	31.6
<b>Total</b>	<b>190778</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>200003</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>215043</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>220774</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>252567</b>	<b>100</b>

Source: Kingdom of Saudi Arabia Ministry of Finance, Central Department of Statistics, *Annual Statistical Book 1993, 29th issue*, (Riyadh: Central Department of Statistics, 1993), p.47.

Table 1.2 shows how, as the education sector expanded from 1989 to 1993 so did the number of non-Saudi teachers. Thus by 1993, there had been an increase of more than 12,000 foreign teachers working in educational institutions from 1989, against the wishes of the Development Plans which forecast that the numbers would be decreasing. Although the number of Saudi teaching staff has increased dramatically in this period (from 122,923 to 172,655, an increase of more than 40%), the success of this increase is limited by the continuing reliance on non-Saudi staff, which remains at over 30% of the total teachers employed.



**Table 1.3. Ministry of Health: Manpower by Category, Sex, and Nationality in 1993**

Category		Saudi	Non-Saudi	Total
Physicians	Male	1608	10449	11535
	Female	704	2314	3018
	Total	1790	12763	14553
Nurses	Male	2340	4099	6439
	Female	2933	24001	26934
	Total	5273	28100	33373
Pharmacists	Male	200	218	418
	Female	61	181	242
	Total	261	399	660
Medical Support Staff	Male	7323	6850	14173
	Female	552	3143	3695
	Total	7875	9993	17868
Administrative Personnel	Male	9585	2085	11670
	Female	678	801	1479
	Total	10263	2886	13149
Non-Medical Personnel	Male	1237	5417	6654
	Female	19	60	79
	Total	1256	5477	6733
Workers	Male	14931	21199	36130
	Female	2857	6904	9761
	Total	1778	28103	45891

Source: Kingdom of Saudi Arabia Ministry of Finance, Central Department of Statistics, Annual Statistical Book 1993, 29th issue, (Riyadh: Central Department of Statistics, 1993), p.110.

Table 1.3 indicates how the health manpower market is dominated by non-Saudi workers, in almost every field. The dominance of foreign workers is particularly noticeable in the categories of physicians, nurses, support staff, non-medical personnel and workers. In the category of physicians, for example, there are over seven times as many non-Saudi employees as Saudis.

#### **1.1.2.2. Causes of Manpower Problems**

The central part of the problem is that Saudi Arabia has experienced rapid economic development since 1970. This has been accompanied by severe shortages of manpower at all levels of skills and experience, from manual to technical to executive. The ambitious development plans begun in the early 1970s, when the price of oil rose



sharply, rapidly outgrew the local labour skills available. To meet the demand of the development plans it proved necessary to import foreign workers in large numbers.

There are a number of reasons why the Saudi economy continues to face manpower problems. Abdulkhader<sup>3</sup> suggests that the shortage of manpower is due to various tangible reasons, which include social and cultural factors, educational factors and geographic factors. 'Social and cultural factors' refer to the traditions and customs of the people in the Kingdom, which make it unacceptable for any indigenous person to be employed in manual work. A number of commentators argue that Saudis have no interest in technical work, or work which can be described as 'blue collar' rather than 'white collar'. The lack of interest in 'unsuitable work' has resulted in the domination by foreign workers of this sector of employment, which represents an even greater discouragement to Saudi nationals, as they generally prefer to work with other Saudis.

The 'education factors' are varied. First, the expansion in education at secondary and university levels has only taken place in the last ten years contributing to the lack of a skilled workforce. Secondly, the education system gives more attention to academic progress than to practical learning, which has led Saudi people to prefer this sort of education, rather than technical and vocational training which does not lead on to a university education. As Roy states:

“status, prestige and tradition play a major role in the failure to attract students into the technical and vocational streams. A University degree or secondary baccalaureate are believed to provide entry into a white collar job (even if such jobs are becoming difficult to secure). A technical or vocational degree is viewed as dead-ending in a job strictly involving manual labour.”<sup>4</sup>

A further problem is the lack of educational achievement in the population and the lack of consistency in the results achieved, despite the huge increase in investment from \$6.4bn in 1980 to double this amount in 1994. The success in attracting students into education has not been matched by the output of the sector, with research showing that less than 80 per cent of males entering schools actually complete the training programme. This failure is seen by Roy<sup>5</sup> as symptomatic of the other problems in the education system. He questions the level of motivation among the students, and also



the competence of teachers, especially as contract hire and foreign teachers are seen as being less interested in the performance of the students.

The 'geographical factors' relate to Saudi Arabia being a large country with a small population which is concentrated in the Gulf coast region, along the Red Sea coast and in the central area. Development projects are spread around the country, and the restricted population that may be available locally means that it is often easier to import foreign labour. A further demographic factor is the relative youth of the population which results in considerable numbers being unavailable for employment.

Although Abdulkhader acknowledges these three reasons for the shortage of manpower he fails to acknowledge the problems caused by inappropriate policies. The manpower problem also occurs because of the government's employment policy. There is little unemployment in the Kingdom, but this is due to the fact that the government will employ all those who have a high enough level of educational achievement, regardless of the area of study. One of the results of the availability of what is termed 'luxury employment' is that manpower development is stunted, meaning that the range of skills that are available for employers is more limited than would otherwise be the case. This policy hides the mismatch that exists between the skills that are needed in the economy and those which are supplied by the educational institutions. The fact that there is a dis-equilibrium situation cannot remain hidden and will become more evident as time passes.

A further policy weakness is that once a Saudi citizen has a technical qualification at a particular level, for example from one of the technical colleges, this enables him to enter government service in a non-technical role. This policy then serves as a drain on the pool of the technically qualified population, as these economically active people prefer to enter the civil service and work in a managerial position, rather than working in the area in which they are qualified.

It should be noted that the problems are a reflection of the particular economic situation that exists in Saudi Arabia, a country which is still, in many senses, a developing nation, albeit one which, because of its oil wealth, faces problems unlike



those of most other developing countries. The enormous wealth of the country means that Saudi employees are able to demand much greater rewards from employment but have yet to face some of the demands of industrialisation: according to Nehme "the rapid acceleration of development has not yet made the Saudi labour force as mobile as conditions require."<sup>6</sup>

#### **1.1.2.3. Effects of the Manpower Problem**

One of the fundamental aims of the government's economic plans was to replace all non-Saudi workers with Saudi citizens, in the first place in the public sector and then in private industry - this approach is usually referred to as Saudization.<sup>7</sup> The program, which was introduced in the early 1980s, was intended to be temporary, lasting only for a short term. However, after 25 years of development, there are still shortages of skilled manpower, and the number of the expatriates continues to increase. Also, Saudi workers have not gained sufficiently in terms of learning the skills of the expatriate workers, and therefore the Kingdom continues to rely on imported labour. The existence of large numbers of non-Saudis has impacted on the economic development of the Kingdom and they should be seen only as a short term solution to the fundamental problem that exists - the lack of appropriate skills in the Saudi work force.

The presence of foreign workers indicates a weakness for the Saudi economy, as they disguise the existence of a long-term dis-equilibrium in the national labour market. Furthermore their income tends to be sent home to their own countries rather than being recycled in the Saudi economy. In addition to these economic reasons, there are political reasons for the government to seek to reduce the number of foreign workers, as these workers may flee in the case of a national emergency. As Al-Hegelan and Palmer point out,

"the excessive dependence of the Civil Service on expatriate officials means, in effect, that the Saudis are not totally in control of their own destiny. Certainly the political development of the country will require that the major apparatus for executing the policies of state be substantially in the hands of Saudi nationals. The government is deeply concerned over the excessive role of expatriate labour in the economy and the bureaucracy, yet the

demands of the development process have exacerbated rather than alleviated this problem.’’<sup>8</sup>

Furthermore non-Saudis have the potential to undermine the religious values of the Saudi population, and may weaken the Islamic nature of the Kingdom. Hence, it is very important for the government to seek to replace the foreign workers with Saudi workers.

A further major consequence of the importation of large numbers of foreign workers is that it may lead to the potential unemployment of Saudis. The native workers are able to wait some time in order to pick the type of jobs they wish to choose, rather than being impelled by their needs to immediately take a position which is available. This results in a heavy dependence on foreign labour to carry out the jobs that Saudis could do. The final effect has been the lack of development of the human resources available, as the widespread use of migrant labour and the high level of wealth has led to lack of interest among Saudis in terms of work. It is possible to refer to the education system as being geared to preparing Saudis for the less productive work, which results in the Kingdom being reliant on foreign workers for in term of quantity as well as quality.

### **1.1.3. THE EDUCATION SECTOR**

In order to make an analysis of the education sector, it is necessary to show how the sector is organised and how its interactions with other sectors are organised through different departments of the government.

#### **1.1.3.1. Education Budgets**

The 1970 policy emphasis in the Development Plans has served to increase expenditure on education. This is shown in table 1.4 which, gives information as to how both the absolute and the relative proportion of government spending has been increased in the period covered. While the absolute expenditure had increased year on year, the relative share of government expenditure has fluctuated. The first three years of development saw an increasing share of the budget being allocated to education,



thereafter a fall was recorded to a low of 8.2% in 1974. A period of growth followed until 1977, when the share rose to 13.5%. A further fall was recorded until 1987, followed by a rising share of expenditures until a peak of 16.8% in 1990.

**Table 1.4. Growth in the Education Budget, 1970 to 1992**

Year	Education Budget	% of National Budget
1970	666,351	9.8
1971	1,150,053	10.7
1972	1,591,506	12.1
1973	2,232,657	9.7
1974	3,760,283	8.2
1975	12,940,937	11.7
1976	13,977,458	12.6
1977	15,044,927	13.5
1978	15,132,146	11.8
1979	16,269,082	10.2
1980	21,294,465	8.7
1981	25,823,287	8.7
1982	25,404,000	10.0
1983	26,708,000	10.3
1984	29,943,000	11.5
1985	23,540,000	11.8
1986	23,799,000	11.9
1987	23,181,000	13.6
1988	22,909,000	16.2
1989	22,582,000	16.6
1990	25,460,000	16.8
1991	29,200,600	n/a
1992	29,594,000	n/a

Source: Al-Huqal, A.S., *Nidhâm wa Siyâsat al-Ta'lim fi al-Mamlakah* [The Policy and System of Education in the Kingdom, second edition], (Riyadh: Alshareef Publisher, 1993), p.225.

Throughout the period shown in the table, the percentage of the total national budget has varied from as little as 8.2% in 1974 to as much as 16.8% in 1990. The overall trend, though, is an increase in both the absolute and relative spending on education. It can be established from this table that the government recognises the importance of education in economic development.



### **1.1.3.2. Organisation of the Education Sector**

There are many agencies within the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia that have responsibility within the field of education and training. This division of responsibility unfortunately leads to confusion and a lack of overall information.

In terms of general education, the most important departments of government are the Ministry of Education and the General Administration for Girls' Education. The former established in 1953, is concerned with male education at the primary and secondary levels, the male teacher training colleges and centres, science centres and all adult male education. The latter was set up in 1960 and is responsible for female education from primary to high school, as well as girls' colleges, female teacher training, female adult education and social services. There are also a number of other agencies, including the Ministry of Defence, The Ministry of the Interior, the National Guard, the Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs, which all have a degree of input into the education system either as providers or by, for example, setting targets, arranging professional qualifications and testing standards. There are also a number of specialist agencies such as the Institute of Nursing. Higher education, comprising of the seven universities, which is the second educational sector, is administered by the Ministry of Higher Education.

The third educational sector is that of technical and vocational training. The sector is divided into three: technical education; vocational training; and special training. Technical education contains six bodies which play different roles: the General Organisation for Technical Education and Vocational Training (GOTEVT); the Ministry of Health; the Ministry of Post, Telephone and Telegraph; the General Presidency of Girls' Education; the Ministry of Education; the Royal Commission of Jubail and Yambu.<sup>9</sup> The GOTEVT was established in 1980 under the responsibility of the Manpower Council. It supervises several technical training colleges, higher institutes for teacher training, higher institutes for financial and commercial sciences and other specialised programmes including on-the-job training schemes.

The vocational sector has three different bodies which supervise different parts of the whole. The three bodies are GOTEVT, the General Presidency of Girls' Education and the Central Organisation for Repatriation of the Disabled which is attached to the Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs.<sup>10</sup> Special training is designed to relate training of the individual tailored to the needs of a specific organisation, either prior to obtaining the job or as in-job-training. Thirteen different organisations are responsible for providing this training including GOTEVT and the Institute of Public Administration (IPA).<sup>11</sup>

From this brief study it is apparent that there exists a plethora of organisations with some form of responsibility for technical training and vocational education. Furthermore, a number of these organisations, such as GOTEVT, cut across the different sectors. In this study only the higher education and technical/vocational training will be analysed in-depth.

#### **1.1.3.3. Organisation of Higher Education**

Higher Education was under the supervision of the Ministry of Education until the beginning of the Second Five Year Development Plan when a separate Ministry for Higher Education was established by the Royal Decree number 1/236, dated 8.10.1395 (1975). The role of the Ministry of Higher Education, according to the Royal Decree, is to implement the Kingdom's policy in the field of higher education through the Universities. Also, there is a 'Supreme Council for Universities' established by Royal Decree number m/15, dated 15.4.1394 (1974) to look into issues, such as academic programs, to co-ordinate universities' academic programmes, to lay down admission policies and, in general, formulate and implement government policies on higher education and research in co-ordination with the Ministry of Higher Education. The Supreme Council for Universities is responsible to the Ministry for Higher Education. King Fahd bin Abdul Aziz is the president, while the Minister of Higher Education is the vice president of the Council of Higher Education.<sup>12</sup>



#### 1.1.3.4. The Institutional Development of Higher Education

Table 1.5 indicates the time-scale for the establishment of the universities. From 1957 to 1973, a period of 16 years, only three universities were created. However, following the oil boom and also the introduction of the Development Plans, four more universities were established in the next six years. The subsequent increase in student numbers can be seen from table 1.6.

**Table 1.5. Universities, Year of Establishment, Initial Number of Students and Location**

Name of University	Year of Establishment	No. of Students	Location
King Saud University	1957	21	Riyadh
Islamic University	1961	85	Madina
King Abdul Aziz University	1967	98	Jeddah
Imam University	1974	3370	Riyadh
King Fahd University	1975	67	Dammam
King Faisal University	1976	170	Alahsa
Umm Al-Qura University	1980	4277	Makkah

Sources: Al-Qadi, M.Y., *Nizâm al-Ta'lim aw al-Tanmiyah fi al-Mamlakah* [Education System and Development in the Kingdom], (Riyadh: Dar Al-Mareekh, 1981), p. 109 and Kingdom of Saudi Arabia Ministry of Higher Education, *Statistical Index on Progress of Higher Education, 1980 to 1991*, issue no. 6, (Riyadh: Al Orubah, 1992), p.15

**Table 1.6. Student Enrolment in all Universities in 1985, 1992 and 1995**

University name	1985	1992	1995
King Saud University	5902	7167	8396
King Abdul Aziz University	4505	8847	7557
Umm Al-Qura University	2302	4173	4787
King Faisal University	980	1011	2862
King Fadh University	863	1445	1160
Islamic University	59	1225	809
Imam University	3991	7796	8739
<b>Total</b>	<b>18602</b>	<b>31664</b>	<b>34310</b>

Sources: Kingdom of Saudi Arabia Ministry of Education, *Educational Statistics in the Kingdom, 1985-86, 19th. issue*, (Riyadh: Al-Watan Publisher, 1986), p.418, Kingdom of Saudi Arabia Ministry of Higher Education, *Summary Statistics on Higher Education in Saudi Arabia for 1995*, (Riyadh: Imam University Publisher, 1995), p.1 and Kingdom of Saudi Arabia Ministry of Higher Education, *Statistical Index on Progress of Higher Education, 1980 to 1991*, issue no. 6, (Riyadh: Al Orubah, 1992), p.15.



#### **1.1.4. EDUCATION PLANNING AND EMPLOYMENT**

This section will discuss the approach of the education system and government to development, and how this relates to the needs of employers.

The First and Second Five Year Development Plans of 1970 and 1975, respectively, were primarily concerned with developing the infrastructure. The First Plan when discussing education stated that

- “the overall objective is to
- continue the expansion of opportunities for education at all levels in order to provide the capability at each level of accepting all qualified graduates from the subordinate levels who seek enrolment;
- strengthen the educational institutions at all levels with efforts concentrated on those measures which will improve efficiency and produce excellence in the education program.”<sup>13</sup>

The Second Plan followed in the footsteps of the First Plan with a general statement about expanding the education system all levels. By the time the Third Plan was released in 1980 the government had become aware of the problems caused by the use of foreign labour. Thus the concept Saudization, the replacement of the expatriates by the qualified indigenous peoples, was emphasised. Also for the first time, the plan acknowledged the need to make the education system react qualitatively, rather than merely quantitatively, to the needs of development. The second educational objective of the Third Plan stated that it was necessary “to equip citizens as future participants in the labour force by providing types of training which are responsive to the changing needs of the economy.”<sup>14</sup> By the Fifth Plan (1990-1995) the realisation of the importance of the role of education had grown significantly. Thus the third and fourth strategic objectives of the plan were concerned with education and its links with development. The role of higher education was emphasised with the statement that it was necessary “to expand and diversify higher education programs and ensure that the activities of higher educational institutions are responsive to the requirements of socio-economic development.”<sup>15</sup>

The major issue facing the Ministry of Education is to match the needs of the development plan with the output of appropriately qualified students. There are a



number of difficulties which must be surmounted by the educational sector if it is to be able to fulfil the needs of the development planners. Education in Saudi Arabia has expanded in line with the requirements of the Five Year Development Plans at all levels, and this expansion has seen a manifold increase in the numbers of Saudi citizens who are being educated at primary, secondary, and university levels. However, one of the results of the current arrangements is that there appear to be too many arts and social science graduates, and not enough graduates in natural science and with technical skills. This is shown in table 1.7 which highlights the relative proportions of graduates from the different academic areas of the Kingdom's Universities.

There have been changes in the proportions as can be seen by a comparison of table 1.7 with table 1.8. This comparison shows significant growth in education (30 percentage points) and natural sciences (4 percentage points), and a reduction in Islamic studies (by 5.5 percentage points), social sciences (3 percentage points), economics and administration (13 percentage points) and engineering (8 percentage points). Although the increase in the natural sciences is welcome by 1994-95 these graduates still only accounted for 8.6% of total graduates. The present emphasis of the education system has resulted in one of its greatest weaknesses in that the system fails to address need for the technical skills required by the Kingdom.

**Table 1.7. Total Graduates by Faculty, 1980-1985**

Field of Study	1980	1981	1982	1983	1984	1985	Total	%
Islamic Studies	549	611	669	661	598	864	3952	17.2
Humanities	354	698	851	801	959	739	4402	19.1
Social Sciences	156	121	145	166	139	535	1262	5.5
Administration and Economics	488	773	851	725	804	817	4458	19.4
Education	306	436	539	614	648	760	3303	14.3
Natural Science	99	154	147	161	201	204	966	4.2
Engineering	430	446	505	463	471	635	2950	12.8
Medicine	100	93	114	142	157	175	781	3.4
Agriculture	128	182	150	145	134	212	951	4.1
<b>Total</b>	<b>4941</b>	<b>4111</b>	<b>3878</b>	<b>3971</b>	<b>3514</b>	<b>2610</b>	<b>23025</b>	<b>100</b>

Source: Kingdom of Saudi Arabia Ministry of Higher Education, Statistical Index on Progress of Higher Education, (Riyadh: Ministry of Higher Education, 1985), p.38 and Kingdom of Saudi Arabia Ministry of Higher Education, Statistical Index during Quarter of a Century from 1960 to 1985, Third Issue, (Riyadh: Ministry of Higher Education, 1985), table 19.



The failure to relate the training to the skills which are demanded by potential employers is, according to Chapman, a disaster waiting to happen. He refers to this in terms not lacking in drama - “[the ability] to relate jobs to educational or institutional requirements ... (is) the pivot on which success or failure in public administration depends.”<sup>16</sup> He identifies the factors which require to be addressed in the growing manpower shortage as: the increasing population; rural/urban migration; the need for increased productivity and an appropriate product mix; a better distribution of income and the pattern of demand; and changes in the social aspirations and education of the people.

**Table 1.8. Graduates by Field of Study, 1990-91 and 1994-95**

Field of Study	1990-91		1994-95	
	Total Graduates	%	Total Graduates	%
Islamic Studies	1815	13.0	2528	11.7
Humanities	3348	24.0	3824	17.7
Social Sciences	297	2.1	284	1.3
Economics and Administration	1145	8.2	1377	6.4
Education	4801	34.4	9583	44.4
Natural Sciences	884	6.3	1865	8.6
Engineering	762	5.5	962	4.5
Medicine	474	3.4	751	3.5
Agriculture	444	3.2	425	2.0
<b>Total</b>	<b>13970</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>21599</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Source: Adapted from Kingdom of Saudi Arabia Ministry of Higher Education, Statistical Index on Progress of Higher Education, 1980 to 1991, issue no. 6, (Riyadh: Al Orubah, 1992), p.47 and Kingdom of Saudi Arabia Ministry of Higher Education, Statistical of Higher Education 1995, 17th issue, (Riyadh: Ministry of Higher Education, 1995), p.17.

It is vital that it is recognised that the failure to align educational output with the development needs, which has resulted in the continually growing dependency on foreign workers, has occurred then search for a solution to the problem can be started. However, it has to be recognised that there can be no quick fix solutions to the problem. It will be necessary to adopt a long term view in discussing educational issues because it takes time for any reform to filter through the education system. Shaw<sup>17</sup> refers to needing over twenty years to review the changes that can be made today, a period longer than in any other field of government. For example, while it is easy to argue for new school buildings and other infrastructure improvements, the



results of such building will take a long time to be felt. It is a long and arduous task to upgrade the educational infrastructure.

All those concerned with development and education must realise that education is as much an economic investment because of the individual and societal gains, as it is a capital investment. Therefore, investment in human capital should be viewed by policy makers on the same terms as investment in physical capital.

## **1.2. STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM**

Saudi Arabia is a developing country with a unique set of circumstances. It has huge mineral resources which have resulted in considerable financial reserves allowing the government to implement a rapid programme of development. However the speed of the implementation of the programme has outpaced the development of the human resources of the country. Therefore although there has been a huge expansion of the education system at all levels, in the last thirty years: spending, attendance levels, numbers of teachers and teaching institutions have all seen dramatic increases, this is not enough in itself. As Roy points out:

“there remain shortcomings, the most serious problem, the chronic shortage of qualified, indigenous manpower showed little improvement despite the vast amount of money spent on education and the increasing number of Saudi nationals graduated from all education levels.”<sup>18</sup>

A situation exists where the amount of money expended on the education sector is increasing over time, and the numbers of graduates at all levels is also increasing, but the fundamental problem, of deficiencies in certain skill areas and the failure to replace foreign technical workers with Saudi workers, remains.

Table 1.9 shows how the number of foreign workers in the public sector increased every year to 1991-92. A small fall was recorded the next year, followed by a dramatic jump to 159,612 in 1992-93. The final year for which figures are available, 1993-94, shows a decline to 144,934 the lowest total since 1987-88. In the 23 year period shown in the table, the total number of foreign workers increased from 23,629 to 144,934, a factor of just over six. The percentage of non-Saudis in the total workforce



also exhibited an increase in the first decade and a half of the table, from 28.6% to a peak of 37.1% in the year 1984-85. Since that time the non-Saudi share of the public sector workforce has shown a gradual but steady decline to a position of 28.2% in 1993-94, the lowest recorded figure since the development planning process began. However, despite the strength of the recent figures the figures indicate that over one in four of public sector employees is not a native of Saudi Arabia. Therefore, the problem of dependency still remains to be solved. The foreign workers had been expected to be replaced by Saudis by this period in the development process.

**Table 1.9. Total Employment Figures of Saudis and Non-Saudis in the Public Sector 1971-72 to 1993-94**

Year	Saudi	Non-Saudi	Total	Percent Non-Saudi to total	Percent Saudi to total
1971-72	58,863	23,629	82,492	28.6	71.4
1972-73	67,779	28,288	96,067	29.4	70.5
1973-74	73,330	31,106	104,436	29.8	70.2
1974-75	81,914	34,748	116,665	29.8	70.2
1975-76	87,673	42,400	130,073	32.6	67.4
1976-77	88,070	47,055	135,125	34.8	65.2
1977-78	98,447	50,976	149,423	34.4	65.6
1978-79	103,703	57,252	160,955	35.6	64.4
1979-80	111,770	64,182	175,952	35.2	64.8
1980-81	125,838	69,397	195,235	35.9	64.1
1981-82	138,729	72,867	199,172	34.8	65.2
1982-83	182,899	86,233	211,596	34.4	65.6
1983-84	191,936	106,124	298,060	35.6	64.4
1984-85	205,857	121,331	327,188	37.1	62.9
1985-86	227,927	129,281	357,208	36.2	63.8
1986-87	242,936	140,494	383,430	36.6	63.4
1987-88	261,560	144,523	406,083	35.6	64.4
1988-89	280,508	147,522	428,030	34.5	65.5
1989-90	293,101	150,116	443,217	33.9	66.1
1990-91	298,612	153,642	452,074	33.9	66.1
1991-92	319,754	151,658	471,439	32.2	67.8
1992-93	345,672	159,612	505,284	31.6	68.4
1993-94	368,735	144,934	513,669	28.2	71.8

Source: Adapted from Al-Qahtani, S.S., "Career Choice of Saudi Arabia Male Public Sector Employees : Career Orientation and Individual Demographic Characteristic", (Ph.D. thesis, University of Pittsburgh, 1991), p.5 and Al-Tawail, M.A., Public Administration in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, (Riyadh: Institute of Public Administration, 1995), p.354.



At a 1995 seminar entitled 'University Service to Society: Future View', organised by the Imam University, Abha City, one of the participants from Riyadh who held a high position in the Civil Service system was asked why are there still 600,000 foreign workers in the public sector. He argued that this was not the case but that around or less than 140,000 were employed in the public sector through the Civil Service system. Of the 140,000, 95% work in just two sectors, health and education. He went on to state that the rest of the 600,000 are employed by companies involved with operations and maintenance in the public sector. He stressed that these workers do not fall under the responsibility of the Civil Service system, because there are many agencies involved in their employment.<sup>19</sup> From these figures, it is apparent that despite the recent success indicated in table 1.9, the problem is actually greater than portrayed and remains still unresolved, requiring further attention.

The heart of the problem lies in the skills mismatch which is presently hidden by the government's policy of employing large numbers of graduates in the civil service. With the Kingdom's universities turning out ever increasing numbers of well educated graduates, there are too few Saudis working in certain areas, and too many seeking work in other areas. Therefore the question that must be raised is: why are there less Saudi workers in certain fields than in others? Answering the question will help to understand why there is an increasing numbers of foreign workers who are required to do the work that Saudis are either unwilling or unable to do.

It seems that, at present, Saudi nationals are unprepared to meet the challenges presented by the rapid expansion and development of the economy, and its social consequences. Some personnel do not appear to have adequate education, while others have sufficient education but lack management skills. Indigenous labour is concentrated in the public sector. It is a primary goal of the Saudi Arabian government's policy to increase the level of interest in all types of work by the available indigenous labour pool and to substantially reduce the reliance on imported workers. Overall, the intention of the government is to support and sustain the economic development which reducing the reliance on non-Saudi workers, as well as to establish long term manpower development methods.



There are a number of problem associated with Saudi manpower. These difficulties have been well documented by Al-Shaqawi and Farraj. Among the problems identified are:

- there is a clear mismatch in the shortage of supply of manpower and the demand for trained and able labour, especially in technical, vocational, skilled labour and clerical workers;
- one of the largest users of imported labour is the educational sector;
- there is a lack of proper planning and this creates an imbalance in the labour market;
- it is difficult to create a comprehensive planning system for bringing in foreign labourers when so many different agencies are responsible for a particular area: what may be needed is a single central authority to oversee and organise the importing of foreign workers;
- in the education field, the lack of a comprehensive planning system means that each institution effectively works in isolation, without regard for the side effects of bringing in foreign workers;
- traditions and customs have a strong negative influence in setting peoples' minds against vocational training and certain types of work.<sup>20</sup>

This research seeks to examine the relationship between the higher education system and manpower development concentrating on the imbalance between supply and demand, particularly in the technical and vocational manpower market in the public sector. The study will also examine the social values, customs and attitudes of university students towards work. Special attention will be paid to other scientific skills which may be lacking.

This study hypothesises that there are many factors responsible for this problem of imbalance. One of these factors is the universities, which are primary agents in supplying the manpower required for development are not linked to the strategy of the development of labour. Secondly, there seems to be no coherent policy of manpower planning. Also, there are strong rooted values and cultural factors influencing students' attitudes to the type of education, training and work which are they willing to accept. The misfit between higher education goals and national labour requirements, the lack



of planning, and the conflict with traditional customs and values, constitute barriers, to national development.

### **1.3. OBJECTIVES OF THE RESEARCH**

The main aims of this study are to investigate how the five Saudi Development Plans (1970-1995) have dealt with the problem of manpower in the public sector; to describe the current situation of the public sector and to what extent it depends on the expatriates; to explore the real problems and their causes which hinder the production of sufficient qualified people for the public sector bureaucracies; and to develop a strategy that can fill the gap between supply and demand for indigenous qualified labour to ensure the continued development of Saudi Arabia. In short, the general purpose of this study is to investigate the different factors involving the manpower required by the Development Plans in the Saudi public sector.

By answering questions raised in section 1.1, the study will achieve five fundamental objectives, namely:

- To provide an analysis of the evolution of the higher education system in Saudi Arabia, with particular reference to the Assir region.
- To examine the functions of the higher education and training systems in the development plans of the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, with particular reference to the Assir region;
- To determine whether the higher education and training systems are meeting the country's requirements for qualified staff in the public sector, especially the health and education sectors, where the foreign workers are particularly concentrated, with particular reference to the Assir region.
- To analyse and interpret data, information, questionnaires and responses in order to produce a conclusion on which useful recommendations can be made to improve the performance of the Saudi public sector, using the Assir region as a case study;
- To obtain a full understanding of the relationship between higher education and the needs of the public sector for qualified personnel; and



- to examine the output of the education system and to see if it matches with the manpower development requirements or not, using the Assir region as a case study area.

#### **1.4. SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY**

This study is significant for two particular reasons: firstly, there is a need to systematically analyse the problems of increased migrant labour in Saudi Arabia, as there has been little attempt to make such a quantitative analysis, based on primary data, in relation to the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia in general and Assir region in particular. Secondly, the study does not set on one side the numerous theoretical reviews of written material on this topic. Once the initial data has been analysed, previous research literature is extensively used in relation to the results of the present investigation.

It is intended that this study will provide a clear picture about the cultural factors and the attitude of the Saudi students towards professional, vocational and manual work, and how this affects the development plans.

It is hoped that this study can help the public bureaucracies to improve their orientation and can help the education system to improve the quality of the labour pool that is available for employment. It will show the gap between demand and supply of the qualified personnel in the public sector, and how the higher education and training enhances or retards the problem.

It is intended that this study will help and guide the decision makers to pay more attention to the manpower problem. It will also help them to find out why the higher education system have not been able to cope with the requirements resulting from economic development, in order to solve the problems facing the graduate employment market.



## **1.5. LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY**

The scope of this study is limited to the male employees of the public sector in Saudi Arabia, with particular reference to the Assir region. It is limited to the public sector for a number of reasons: firstly, because in Saudi Arabia, the public sector is the main tool for the government to implement its policies in everyday life; secondly, the public sector is the biggest employer of Saudi nationals, and therefore most important in all employment matters; thirdly, the government seeks to give the population everything they need through the public sector; and fourthly, virtually everybody in Saudi Arabia wishes to work in the public sector, and the government promises to give all the chance to work there. The final two reasons are more practical: it is easier to obtain data on the public sector through the Civil Service Commission than on any other sector, and the personal experience the researcher has gained of the public sector while being employed in that sector will benefit the analysis.

The research is limited to male employees for practical reasons: female employees are limited to certain particular roles, such as nursing and teaching, and can not they work at any level of management, therefore have less opportunity to work in the public sector, the education system for girls is considered to be a completely separate system from the education of boys, and it is very difficult to make comparisons between the two; access to female departments in education is prohibited to male researchers, because of the segregation in education; the government would prefer to let a female researcher do such a study.

The military, the police, and the private sector are excluded because they are governed by their own professional procedures and as such are not classified in Saudi Arabia as the public sector. Furthermore these agencies are not included in the Civil Service system, and finally because there are no expatriates working in the military and police, except as trainers or consultants.

The Assir region was chosen because this is where the researcher was born and has greatest access to in Saudi Arabia. Secondly, because of the limits on the time available, it would be impossible to cover the whole country, hence it is better to



sample a region which has a broad cross section of public sector bodies. Assir fits this requirement, as it is the district headquarters for the southern region with branches of all the Ministries represented: this factor also increases the choice of personnel for interviews. Furthermore, there has been no similar study in the Assir region, which recently has started to flourish, due to the considerable development being undertaken. There is an increasing population and the government authorities have expressed an interest in restricting the internal migration out of the region to other areas of the Kingdom. Lastly, Assir has two University branches where the researcher conducted the research.

Finally, the time period of this study will be limited to 1970 to 1995, as this covers the Saudi government's first five development plans. The particular focus of the study will be concentrate on the period of the Fifth Development Plan, 1990 to 1995.

## **1.6. ORGANISATION OF THE STUDY**

The first chapter of this study contains an introduction, a statement of the problem, the significance and limitations of the study and a description of the organisation of the study.

Chapter two is a review of the literature on the subject, and consists of two levels of analysis. The first discusses the relationship between education and employment globally, while the second discusses education and employment specifically in Saudi Arabia.

Chapter three studies the background of Saudi Arabia, including its geography and climate; its history; and its economic development. There is also an analysis of the five Five Year Development Plans and a discussion of the public sector in the Kingdom.

Chapter four analysis the higher education sector and the manpower programme in the country through the five development plans which have been completed, with a discussion of the Higher Education and Health sectors in the Assir region.



Chapter five deals with the study methodology, by discussing the interviews, the questionnaires and how these were used to bring the issues of the study into focus. In general, the chapter explains how the data was collected.

The last five chapters make up the data analysis: chapter six discusses the views of managers towards the Saudization policy; chapter seven analyses the opinions of the students to employment, and their reasons for choosing the subject of their study; chapter eight studies the students' opinions of employment objectives; chapter nine discusses the students' opinions of non-Saudi workers; and chapter ten makes a number of conclusions and recommendations for future research.

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## **ENDNOTES**

<sup>1</sup> Shaw, P.F., "Saudi Arabian Manpower Requirements", in Rouki, G.S. and Montana, P.J., (eds.), Workforce Management in the Arabian Peninsular, (New York: Greenwood Press, 1986), p.93.

<sup>2</sup> Nehme, M., "Saudi Development Plans between Capitalist and Islamic Values", Middle Eastern Studies, vol. 30, no. 3, July 1994, p.635.

<sup>3</sup> Abdulkhader, M., Barâmidj wa Siyâsât wa Takhtît al-Quwa al-'âmilah [The Development of Manpower Policy, Planning, and Programming], (Cairo: 1976), p.219.

<sup>4</sup> Roy, D.A., "Saudi Arabia Education Development Policy", Middle Eastern Studies, vol. 28, no 3, July 1992, p.478.

<sup>5</sup> Ibid., pp. 477-508.

<sup>6</sup> Nehme, M., op. cit., pp.632-645.

<sup>7</sup> Shaw, J.A., "Saudi Arabian Modernisation", The Washington Papers, vol. x, no.89, 1982, p.45.

<sup>8</sup> Al-Hegelan, A., and Palmer, M., Bureaucracy and Development in Saudi Arabia, The Middle East Journal, vol. 39, no. 1, Winter 1985, p.49.

<sup>9</sup> Kingdom of Saudi Arabia Manpower Council, 12th Annual Report on Technical Education and Vocational Training Conditions in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, (Riyadh: Manpower Council, 1994), p.17.

<sup>10</sup> Ibid., p.78.

<sup>11</sup> Ibid., pp.102-124.

<sup>12</sup> Kingdom of Saudi Arabia Ministry of Education, Educational Statistics in the Kingdom, 1985-86, 19th. issue, (Riyadh: Al-Watan Publisher, 1986), p.31.

<sup>13</sup> Kingdom of Saudi Arabia Ministry of Planning, First Development Plan 1970-1975, (Riyadh: Ministry of Planning, 1970), p.95.

<sup>14</sup> Kingdom of Saudi Arabia Ministry of Planning, Third Development Plan 1980-1985, (Riyadh: Ministry of Planning, 1980), p.287.

<sup>15</sup> Kingdom of Saudi Arabia Ministry of Planning, Fifth Development Plan 1990-1995, (Riyadh: Ministry of Planning, 1990), p.256.

<sup>16</sup> Chapman, R.A., "Administrative Reform in Saudi Arabia", Journal of Administration Overseas, vol. xiii, no. 2, April 1974, pp.332-347.

<sup>17</sup> Shaw, R.P., "Manpower and Educational Shortages in the Arab World: an Interim Strategy", World Development, vol. 9, no. 7, 1981, pp.637-655.

<sup>18</sup> Roy, D.A., op. cit., p.481.

<sup>19</sup> Imam University, Faculty of Arabic and Social Sciences, Abha Branch, seminar attended by the researcher during his fieldwork, Al-Djami'ah wa Tanmiyat al-Mudjtama': Nazrah lil Mustaqbal [The University and the Development of the Society: A Future View, Seminar], Abha City, 1995.



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<sup>20</sup> Al-Shaqawi, A. and Farraj, A., “Al-Takhtit al-Shâmil lil Mawârid al-Bashariyyah” [The Comprehensive Plan for Manpower in the Kingdom], Paper presented to The Seminar of Manpower Planning, Institute of Public Administration, Riyadh, 1980, p.246.



## **CHAPTER TWO**

### **LITERATURE REVIEW**

#### **2.1. INTRODUCTION**

This chapter will review the literature considered to be most relevant to this study on the provision of education to the public sector labour market in Saudi Arabia. The review will focus on the relationships between education and development, education and manpower and higher education and manpower, as these are the key issues of the research. Also discussed will be the literature on human resource development and Vocational and Technical Education (VTE). Each section will be sub-divided into general (global) literature and that which relates specifically to Saudi Arabia.

#### **2.2. EDUCATION AND DEVELOPMENT**

##### **2.2.1. GENERAL LITERATURE**

The relationship between education and development is a growing part of the research in the discipline of public administration. The major study, “Education, Manpower and Economic Growth: Strategies of Human Resource Development” by Harbison and Myers (1964) has laid the basis for much of the subsequent thinking on matters related to education and development. In their book, Harbison and Myers stated that:

“on the basis of quantitative indicators, we have grouped countries into four levels labelled underdeveloped, partially developed, semi-advanced, and advanced. For each level, we have analysed qualitatively the problems of education and training faced by the typical or average country and have outlined a “logical” strategy for human resource development within the context of prevailing economic and political pressures or imperatives.”<sup>1</sup>

The main aim of their study was to understand the development of human resources and the organisation of human activity in different countries. The authors paid particular attention to manpower development. They believed that policies of development in general, (economic development in particular), social strategy and



education should be planned together to run in parallel. The aim of these policies being to provide the manpower needed in the correct quantity and quality, and at the appropriate time. They analysed economic, political and social development from the perspective of the inputs from education and training. Harbison and Myers referred to the Japanese experience where the policy had been to follow a strategy of manpower development prior to economic growth, bringing forth a highly skilled labour force which then contributed to economic growth.

The authors focused on how to invest in 'man', and on the problems of education and training faced by different countries. They recognised education as the best means to produce the quality and quantity of manpower required. In other words, they argued that education should produce the appropriate manpower. The authors drew a number of conclusions which are relevant to the present study, namely:

- that there is a relationship between human resource development and economic growth;
- that education is the most important factor in the development of appropriate manpower;
- that nations should ensure that their education system is integrated not only with the program for general economic and social development, but especially with manpower planning;
- that nations which have an appropriate education process depend less on migrant labour; and
- that there is an association between reliance on foreign manpower and underdevelopment.<sup>2</sup>

Rather than taking the global view of Harbison and Myers, Rao in his 1966 work, "Education and Human Resource Development" concentrated on the less developed countries. He analysed closely the relationship between education, human resource development and economic growth. As an economist and educationalist he supported the view that "human resource development should figure prominently in plans and programs for economic and social development."<sup>3</sup> He stated however, that only recently had this been recognised in the developing countries. Rao was "keenly aware



of the relationship between education, human resource development and economic growth”<sup>4</sup> and expressed the hope of convincing educationalists and planners in developing countries of the need to plan their educational programs to act as the major influence in human resource development to produce economic growth.

Al-Nawab in the 1988 study entitled “The Future of Education and Unemployment in the Arab Nations”<sup>5</sup> focused on an Arab perspective rather than the all embracing term developing countries. He put forward the view that the education system and its agencies was not only a means to economic growth but also was a way of enabling society to change. The author viewed education as the factor which played the major role in development and the basic foundation on which society depends. Education, he argued, was the ‘golden key’ which would help the Arab countries to move from the position of being underdeveloped to being one of the advanced nations.<sup>6</sup>

In 1982 a symposium entitled “Higher Education and its Responsibilities in the Development of the Gulf States” was held in Bahrain under the auspices of the Arab Bureau of Education for the Gulf States. The delegates comprised of the vice-chancellors and managers of all the universities in the Gulf, along with invited officials from the industrial and agricultural sectors. The core of the symposium was to think about how to prepare the students for the future challenges of development. The information generated at the conference was collated and analysed by Mursi in his book of 1985.<sup>7</sup> This meeting was the first time that all the decision makers who were concerned about education in the Gulf had met to discuss this issue. The symposium, therefore, paved the way for the future study of the relationship between education and development in the Gulf states. Seven recommendations were produced from the meeting. The most relevant to the present study was that which dealt with the role of universities and higher education agencies in the region. The participants in the seminar agreed that main goal of development is to serve the population. To this end they considered the universities and higher education agencies had to play a major role to achieve this goal. This was to be reached by implementing eight policies, namely:

- to ensure the organisation of the universities, their aims and roles help the universities to achieve their responsibilities to the people;



- to strengthen the relationship between the universities and the productive sector for their mutual benefit;
- to develop and implement the programs and the curriculum of the universities according to the needs of development;
- to ensure that the universities implement the scientific research, particularly, applied research to benefit the productive sector;
- to implement an exchange of personnel programme between the universities and the productive sector;
- to ensure that the universities are independent within the needs of government policy;
- to establish a consultative committee in each university in all study fields in order to eliminate the need for the foreign consultative companies; and
- to ensure the enrolment policy and the distribution of the students to the subjects should be according to the development policy, taking into account the capacity and the capability of the students.<sup>8</sup>

In his concluding analysis of the recommendations Mursi agreed with main conclusions but because of the challenges facing the Gulf states at present he emphasised a further three points. Firstly, he was concerned about the quality rather than the quantity of students. Furthermore he stressed the importance of studying the natural sciences. Finally, the universities should direct their policies to meet the public interest.<sup>9</sup>

A further important study was provided by Badri in his paper “Development in the U.A.E.: The Ideal Versus The Real”<sup>10</sup> (1995) which identified that development in the Gulf states faced different problems from other developing countries because of two reasons. These, he argued were “first, development in the Gulf states is characterised by its unparalleled rapidity. Secondly, the availability and surplus of financial resources unlike other developing countries.”<sup>11</sup> Furthermore, he analysed previous studies on the development processes in the Gulf States and brought new light to the definition of development by distinguishing between the economic aspects and the social ones. Badri argued that:

“if we accept the fact that development is an integrated process which aims to achieve qualitative changes (e.g. social, educational,



cultural, political) in addition to the quantitative ones (e.g. high GNP and per capita income, number of schools and quantitative educational expansion), it could be argued that previous studies have neglected the qualitative outcome of the process of development in the UAE and the other Gulf States.”<sup>12</sup>

In this respect he agreed with Niblock (1980) who saw that the “existing studies of development in the Gulf region have mostly restricted their concern to one aspect of development.”<sup>13</sup> He explored the concept of development by differentiating the economic from the social aspects. Badri argued that:

“In its broad sense, development is not a value free or a neutral concept such as change. Development implies improvement, advancement, and progress. The broad, mainstream view of development is the process of transforming a society from its traditional conditions to an advanced or modernised one, raising the standard of living, developing human resources to affect positively all reachable sectors of society, moving in the direction of self sufficiency and self-reliance rather than dependency.”<sup>14</sup>

He consistently emphasised the importance of education and stated that:

“education is considered the solid foundation and the cornerstone of any developmental process. In other words, education and development are not only firmly connected in terms of their relationship, but it could be argued that they are two faces of the same coin in every sense of the word. For instance, various developmental projects or plans cannot be successfully implemented without the availability of the qualified, educated, and trained national labour force who are the key input in such projects. Moreover, the creation of new jobs in our modern and hi-tech societies, which require new skills and specialised knowledge, requires changes in the objectives of educational institutions and the content curriculum in order to produce the required number of graduates with the desired skills and knowledge.”<sup>15</sup>

He cited Rasheed (1984) to support his conclusion that the need for an efficient, effective and responsive educational system was a prerequisite for development. According to Rasheed “a society cannot develop and its demand cannot be met with economic growth and the availability of material wealth alone. The human capability must also be developed and enhanced in order that society goals be realised.”<sup>16</sup>

Badri held that:



“from the standpoint of development, a supportive and effective educational system must not only emphasise the cognitive objectives and provide students with knowledge, but give an equal importance to the non-cognitive attitudinal objectives and equip the students with the appropriate skills, and pattern of behaviour.”<sup>17</sup>

He suggested that the education system's lack of attention to the latter objectives would result in the attitudes still prevailing which prevent nationals being interested in employment in the private sector or in technical roles.

Osama in 1987 had attributed these attitudes to the methods of teaching which do not strengthen the weak sense of loyalty to the institutions. He put forward the opinion that:

“education within the family - through this has changed little in the context of education expansion - does not inculcate in children a love of work, competence of moral responsibility, and the education system itself can be regarded as a continuation of family upbringing. Education fosters rote learning, not critical thinking, and restricts analytical reasoning. People brought up in such a way cannot be expected to think critically or make sound decisions. The products of this system join the government agencies where they continue not to think. Moreover, in order to avoid mistakes and consequently punishment, they do little work.”<sup>18</sup>

Al-Gosaibi's study “The Dilemma of Development” (1995) referred to the necessity of possessing a certain ‘mentality’, without which it is not possible to succeed in solving the problems encountered in the process of a development transformation. He examined the educational systems in the Third World and commented on the fact that they are unable to eradicate illiteracy put undue emphasis on university education thereby “compounding one error with another.”<sup>19</sup> Furthermore, he stated that “the establishment of universities without aim or co-ordination can lead not to an increase in the educational level of the work-force but to graduate unemployment.”<sup>20</sup> He considered that the educational systems which “have failed to put an end to illiteracy or to put university education on the right track have also failed to provide society with the trained manpower it needs.”<sup>21</sup>



Al-Gosaibi believed that this failure was a result of historical factors. During the move from colonialism to independence the purpose of the educational systems was not reviewed, but the system itself was maintained in exactly the same manner whereas the needs of the economy had changed. He argued that under this system, graduate unemployment went hand in hand with a scarcity of people with manual skills. He laid emphasis on the importance of education to a nations development process by stating “the road to development starts with education and ends with education. Education is the first word and the last word in the epic struggle for development.”<sup>22</sup>

### **2.2.2. LITERATURE ON SAUDI ARABIA**

The relationship between education, manpower resource development and economic growth is a major issue which faces commentators and researchers on the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia. The need to continue the rapid economic development brings with it the recognition of the need for skilled manpower. Saudi development plans recognised the importance of human resource development as part of their policy to increase the employment of Saudi nationals in order to reduce the reliance of the Kingdom on expatriate labour. Achieving these overall objectives is not an easy task.

The 1983 work of El-Farouk, “Education and Labour Demand in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia” which specifically focused on the relationship between the development of manpower and economic growth, sought to answer the question as to which of these leads to the other. When developed and under-developed countries were compared and contrasted he noted that the developed countries gave the training system priority and ensured that their agencies and institutions implemented their programs. El-Farouk concluded that the most important factor in improving the productivity of the people and economic growth, was education and training: this factor could “raise the effectiveness and efficiency of the manpower.”<sup>23</sup>

In Viola’s study “Human Resources Development In Saudi Arabia: Multinationals and Saudization”<sup>24</sup> (1986) the failure of the education system was further analysed. The concern of the author was to ensure the provision of suitably qualified manpower for the American multi-national companies (MNCs) which were operating in Saudi Arabia



at that time. In her examination of Saudi manpower development, she pointed out that all projects established by the United States-Saudi Arabian Joint Commission Economic Co-operation had Saudi manpower development as an important element in them. This was in the firm belief that economic development was going to be gained by improving the education and training of Saudi nationals.

Viola reviewed the references to the manpower issue in the Saudi development plans, as they concentrated on 'Saudization' and the need for better management, and consolidation and co-ordination within the education and training system. Areas where specific policies were required included "ensuring adequate numbers of secondary school graduates pursue higher education in the fields of study relevant to the Kingdom development needs."<sup>25</sup> The author further explained how the need for an infrastructure of national manpower planning had been recognised with the establishment of the Manpower Council in 1980, which was to run in parallel to GOTEVT. There were however, many agencies within the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia which were responsible for the organisation and planning of education. As a result there was scope for considerable confusion and misdirection of resources. She argued that:

"virtually every sector of the economy and every segment of the Saudi Five Year Plans have delineated programs for the development of relevant Saudi manpower. But the whole has never been equal to the sum of its parts. No single individual, government agency or management contractor has addressed the question of what manpower needs would be in the country's total self interest."<sup>26</sup>

Al-Jaber (1994) in his study "The Relationship between University and the Job Market in Saudi Arabia as Perceived by Administrators of some Government and Private Organisations" concentrated on the development needs of Saudi Arabia, without being concerned about the requirements of American MNCs. He provided three conclusions which are of great significance to the present study. He argued that

"officials in the government and private sectors share the views that although graduates possess the necessary skills, those skills are not, in general, geared toward the nature of the works these employers are offering. They also share the views that current communication between the university and those agencies is not as strong, and there is an urgent need to strengthen it. Although



university-based preparation is still paramount their views toward retraining the graduates are identical. They also emphasise making training an integral part of the preparation.”<sup>27</sup>

## **2.3. EDUCATION AND MANPOWER**

An objective of any developing nation must be to produce an adequate supply of able and skilled manpower to make their contribution to the nations plans for development. The relationship between the education system and the quality and quantity of manpower needed to contribute to the nations development has been the subject of much consideration. The debates and conclusions of a number of authors are reviewed to draw together those factors felt to be most relevant to this very important field.

### **2.3.1. GENERAL LITERATURE**

The importance of this relationship is stressed in the recent work of Furuya and Clark ‘Labour Force Developments and Emerging Human Resources Policies in Japan’<sup>28</sup> (1993) when they examined the Japanese experience in the post-war period and established that the lack of natural resources had been more than counterbalanced by the major investments made in education and training. Despite the fact that over 90 per cent of national energy requirements and 80 per cent of raw materials need to be imported into Japan, the country’s recovery from the Second World War was rapid. The authors confirmed that it was the educational investment which was the reason for success. They argued that

“a common characteristic among the economically successful nations in the Asia-Pacific region is a lack of natural resources. To counteract this limitation, these countries have made major investments in education and training. Their economic growth is based on the relatively large and rising stock of human capital per worker. In contrast, countries in Asia that have achieved much less economic success have been slow to improve the quality of their human resources.”<sup>29</sup>

The work of Furuya and Clark supported the conclusions of Dore and Sako 1989 about vocational training and its place in Japanese education and industry. The authors argued that “in Japan real, not token, education is enjoyed by nearly the whole population, and not just by a meritocratic or wealthy elite.”<sup>30</sup>



Birks and Sinclair in their work "Arab Manpower: The Crisis of Development" (1980) examined the nature of Arab education and considered how appropriate it was to meet the manpower requirements of the nations it serves. The authors divided the Arab world into three types of states, those that were capital-poor, those they termed pseudo-capital; rich and, the capital rich into which category they placed the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia. They argued that the "shortage of human capital is the major, even pre-eminent, constraint upon development."<sup>31</sup> Having traced the evolution of education from the traditional form of Koranic schools, they referred back to Sinclair's earlier work of 1977 relating to the educational systems in the Arab world which he characterised "as being linear in design, heavily biased towards arts and literature, and having a general university education as the pinnacle of the educational pyramid."<sup>32</sup> Birks and Sinclair referred to similar weaknesses in the educational systems at the time of writing: "the nature of education in the Arab world as a whole is ill-suited to meet the manpower requirements of the modern industrial economies to which the governments aspire."<sup>33</sup> They pointed out that "a university education is considered to be the summit of school activity"<sup>34</sup> and that it is only those who are academically less able who "drop out and enter technical or vocational education."<sup>35</sup> The result is to compound the stigma attached to vocational training, leading to the attitude of the indigenous population to look down on technical training.

A more in-depth analysis of the relationship between education and manpower by Shaw (1981) identified five particular problems faced by the Arab countries in trying to meet their pressing demand for manpower. In the study entitled "Manpower and Educational Shortages in the Arab World: An Interim Strategy" he described the inadequacies in the existing educational infrastructure system in terms of "quality, quantity, content, distribution and brain drain"<sup>36</sup> In considering the problems of quality and quantity, he referred to the large number of students who have to retake each level, the high levels of illiteracy and the large numbers who fail to complete primary and secondary education. He referred to the need to improve the quality of graduates at not only primary and secondary levels, but also at the University level emphasising that the great resources available to an oil-rich economy do not eliminate this problem. The 'content' element referred to the breadth of subjects that are available to students where "less than 5 per cent of all students are enrolled in applied programmes"<sup>37</sup> in the



Arab world as a whole and 5.9 per cent in Saudi Arabia. The unequal geographic distribution of education, resulting from an urban bias in education spending and exacerbated by migration to the cities of rural dwellers who, having received an education, are seeking better employment opportunities will lead inevitably an unequal distribution of skills. The 'brain drain' referred to the number of Arab emigrants to the US, which Shaw suggested requires to be reduced by integrating the needs of Arab manpower and education. The latter is not perceived to be a problem in Saudi Arabia, the Kingdom being a net importer of labour within the Arab world.

Blaug's work "Economic Education in Developing Countries" (1987) is significant because it examined different strategies needed to achieve an appropriately educated, high quality work-force and in so doing, looked at the steps an underdeveloped nation requires to take to achieve rapid expansion of education. He referred to the classic pattern of "allowing the educational pyramid to grow at the base and, only when the base has expanded substantially, to allow it to grow in the middle and at the apex."<sup>38</sup> Therefore, he suggested that the first priority in the Third World was to slow down the rates of growth in both secondary and higher education, and move some of the resources saved to the lower levels of the education system. The author justified this contentious argument by pointing to the growing unemployment of secondary and higher educated persons in Africa and Asia, as well as to the forecasts of surplus middle and higher level manpower in the next decade.

In pursuing the theme of how to ensure the right level of manpower for the nations needs, Blaug examined a number of ambitious schemes moving away from the more formal traditional education systems, to ensure that education was more responsive to the needs of employers. By making the education more appropriate to the workplace, Blaug pointed to a fundamental need to reduce the reliance of employers on academic educational qualifications, as a means of selection, although he acknowledged the fact that as long as earning capability is linked to such qualifications individuals will wish to follow the traditional academic route. His novel approach to solve the problem was that:

"if earning capacities could be made to depend more on individual initiative and ability than on educational qualifications, and if



general culture could become a product of schooling that is almost as important as vocationally useful skills, the school leaver problem in Africa and the graduate unemployment problem in Asia and Latin America would virtually disappear. ...the question is not how to gear education to employment opportunities, .... but how to stop education being geared willy-nilly to employment opportunities of the type that is represented by white collar jobs in the formal sector.”<sup>39</sup>

In addition, he identified other relevant issues such as the respective bearing of costs of education, the qualitative content, the recruitment practices of the labour market and the structure of earnings of the educated.

One study, conducted by the Education College in King Saud University, Riyadh, in 1991, produced a typical typology of constraints faced by manpower programmes which prevent the Gulf States from reaching self-sufficiency. The analysis, titled “Manpower Development in the Industrial, Petroleum, Electricity and Desalination Sectors in the Gulf States” was ordered by the Secretary of the Gulf Co-operation Council (GCC). The five major constraints identified were:-

- the lack of basic information and resources related to manpower development which create a bottleneck for any study of the problem;
- the majority of the people in the Gulf states prefer to work as administrators or in government related employment: they hate manual work due to cultural influences;
- the choice of the subject of study is based on social factors which has resulted in a lack of interest in technical and vocational subjects;
- the education policy planning in the Gulf states is not precisely related to the needs of the public market; and
- despite the efforts in the training programme, in general, the students were not prepared very well to cope with the demands of employment.<sup>40</sup>

A different problem facing education in terms of manpower planning was highlighted by Jones in his 1993 work “Dilemmas in Expanding Education for Faster Economic Growth: Indonesia, Malaysia, and Thailand.” He commented that “concern for the lack of suitable jobs for the rapidly growing number of the better educated has been felt in most countries during periods of rapid educational expansion”<sup>41</sup> and gives



examples of the USA, Indonesia and Malaysia. He stated that the “evidence of high graduate unemployment and narrower wage differentials may discourage many young people from continuing their studies.”<sup>42</sup>

However other writers feel there are benefits from having workers do jobs for which they may on the surface be overqualified. For instance Jones cited Gannicott (1987) who believed there could offsetting productivity benefits “by the diffusion through the occupational structure of better educated workers.”<sup>43</sup> He went on to argue that planners “cannot readily adjust the stream of educated young people entering the labour market to the perceived requirements of the labour market as if they were turning on a tap.”<sup>44</sup> One of the most important considerations in the supply of qualified labour is the time aspect.

### **2.3.2. LITERATURE ON SAUDI ARABIA**

#### **2.3.2.1. Introduction**

The object of this section of the chapter is to examine the relevant literature on the link between education and manpower in Saudi Arabia. A number of writers have stressed that the provision of a supply of skilled manpower is one of the most important issues in the development of the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia.

Shaw and Long (1982) in their book “Saudi Arabian Modernization” argued that “the principal barrier in every sector of the Saudi economy today is the lack of available manpower.”<sup>45</sup> This is in accordance with the 1985 MERI Report on Saudi Arabia which stated that “the severe shortage of manpower, skilled and unskilled, is by far the most serious obstacle impeding economic development in most oil producing countries in the Gulf region. Saudi Arabia is no exception.”<sup>46</sup> The MERI Report also stated that:

“the manpower issue is not only one of numbers of skilled workers available in various industries, but also one of their general attitudes towards work, their industriousness and entrepreneurial mentality and their basic motivation to initiate and develop business projects.”<sup>47</sup>



As there is a considerable volume of literature on the subject of manpower in Saudi Arabia, this section will analyse the output in terms of the foreign work-force, the labour market, the relationship between the expatriate community and Saudization, and finally educational development.

#### **2.3.2.2. Foreign Work-force**

The growth of the foreign workhorse became rapid from the early 1970s. The attention of early writers on this growth focused mainly on the benefits of the expatriate work-force to the development of Saudi Arabia. Thus Chapman (1974) in his article “Administrative Reform in Saudi Arabia” argued that “the main constraint on diversification is manpower.”<sup>48</sup> He concluded that the rapid growth in Saudi Arabia required the import of large numbers of foreigners. However, no attempt was made to analyse the effects of this increase in the non-Saudi labour force.

By the Third Development Plan (1980-1985) there was a general acceptance that the continued growth in the foreign work-force in the public sector was creating problems for Saudi Arabia. A seminar was held in Riyadh in the Institute of Public Administration in 1983 to discuss the non-Saudi workers in the government sector. Four main issues were discussed and the findings published by the Institute in a book entitled “Foreign Workers in the Government Agencies” by Al-’Udaili.<sup>49</sup> The fourth paper concentrated on both the positive and negative effects in the work environment of employing non-Saudis. There were three benefits which were seen. Firstly, the foreigners filled gaps in the work-force created by the shortage of trained Saudis. Secondly, they were contributing to the construction of the infrastructure. Finally, the expatriates were helping with development in education, health and the administration.

However, a number of problems were identified. These were divided into difficulties associated with Saudis and those which related to non-Saudis. The Saudis in the work-force were found to be uncomfortable working alongside non-Saudis. The system created masked unemployment as Saudis lacked a commitment to work believing that non-Saudis would fill any shortfall. The managers lacked confidence in their Saudi employees, although non-Saudis tended to be allocated the basest jobs.



The system helped the rigid red-tape of bureaucracy to be maintained. Turning to the problems associated with non-Saudis, they were considered to lack loyalty to the job. Furthermore, they experienced difficulties in coping with a strange environment. They were associated with low productivity, contributed to a decline in the morale of the work-force, and experienced a low encouragement to work. Finally, there was the problem that difficulties were experienced between different foreign nationals which affected the work performance.<sup>50</sup>

Viola (1986) in ‘Human Resources Development in Saudi Arabia: Multinationals and Saudization’ extended the argument about the employment of non-Saudis by looking at the problem from the perspective of society in Saudi Arabia, rather just the work environment. Thus she argued that as a result of the potential problems the Saudi Arabian government became committed to a programme of Saudization, the objective of which is “the replacement of expatriate labour with similarly skilled, trained and highly educated Saudi nationals.”<sup>51</sup>

The problems mentioned by Viola were explicitly analysed in a publication by the Institute of Public Administration in 1993.<sup>52</sup> These problems were classified as economic, social, psychological and security. The psychological are not relevant for this study because they referred to the private sector. The economic problems identified included the size of remittances which do not allow for a local multiplier effect, increased unemployment because of the cheap foreign labour supply, increased pressure on the Saudi budget as the foreigners benefit from food subsidies, free education and health, and the increased demand leads to higher local prices for goods. The social problems identified were related to the mixing of the different cultures, traditions and religions which the report forecast would result in increased internal tension. Furthermore, the way of life for Saudis would be changed with an increase in crime. The security problems which concerned the publication were the fear of the reaction of the non-Saudis in the case of an outbreak of hostilities.<sup>53</sup>

A different view was expressed by Nehme (1994) in his article “Saudi Development Plans between Capitalist and Islamic Values”. He argued that because of the different nationalities and ethnic barriers:



“the possibility for different foreign labourers to unite and organise is much lower than in homogenous populations. This reduces the Saudis political fear of foreigners and leaves them with the problem of devising policies to appease Islamic values and the traditional faction in Saudi Arabia”<sup>54</sup>

In this case Nehme argued that the security of the state was not a problem, therefore the authorities should concentrate on solving the threats to the society of Saudi Arabia.

### **2.3.2.3. Public Sector Labour Market**

There have been a number of studies which have analysed the reasons behind the shortage of Saudis in the national public sector labour market. A major work was published in the 1980 by Birks and Sinclair entitled “Arab Manpower: The Crisis of Development” This study described and evaluated economic development in both ‘capital rich’ and ‘capital poor’ states of the Arab world by focusing on the national labour markets. Within this study there was an analysis of the labour situation in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia. They authors came to the conclusion that the major constraint to economic development is the size and nature of the labour force. The author considered that the difficulties were due mainly to Saudi Arabia’s geographical size and to its small indigenous population where the level of education attainment is “low overall and very low amongst women.”<sup>55</sup>

Birks and Sinclair gave the figures for total employment of Saudi nationals for 1974/75 as 50% working in agriculture and fishing, 23% in community services and the rest were spread among a variety of occupations predominately unskilled. It was migrant workers who dominated many manufacturing and construction industries. The authors held the opinion that the difficulty of satisfying the demand for workers from the indigenous people was immense, despite the fact that the Saudi government gave the largest single allocation to education in the development plan.<sup>56</sup>

Birks and Sinclair saw the labour market being divided into two sectors; the modern urban sector and the rural traditional (largely subsistence) sector. They believed that one of the reasons that a large proportion of the work-force had not participated in modern sector development was because of the limited communications between urban



and rural centres and a “disinclination amongst the rural population to be formally employed.”<sup>57</sup> Other reasons the authors believed which prevented Saudi men participating in the modern sector were very low educational attainments and skill levels. Furthermore, they argued any transfer from rural to urban employment tends to be mainly on a temporary basis. However, they anticipated that the situation would change once the rural people became educated as this would bring about new attitudes to employment and higher aspirations.

Shaw and Long (1982) also saw the labour market as a dual economy where “one level is the modern sector from which the development effort must draw its managers and technicians. The other is the traditional labour market with limited skills, limited literacy and an anti-development bias.”<sup>58</sup> With this in mind they stated that “the modern market gleans as much as it can from the traditionalist market, but clearly must depend on the educational and training process for most of its needs.”<sup>59</sup> They recognise that although the Inter-Ministerial Committee on Manpower, established in 1980 to serve the areas of manpower planning, development, training, placement and evaluation, could make considerable impact, “it is clear that the Kingdom will require a large cadre of foreign managers with technical training to manage most major development programmes for the foreseeable future.”<sup>60</sup>

Similar comment on the duality of the labour market were made by Viola (1986) who put forward a number of key issues relative to the quality and quantity of labour. She argued the problem was created because of:

- “the fact that education had not been compulsory;
- rural families did not have a tradition of placing a high value on education and are consequently unable to perceive the long term economic value of pursuing an education;
- students drop out of education as soon as their basic literary skills have been achieved and allow them to take up immediate employment;
- mobility from rural to urban areas fosters the student drop-out rate;
- as there are many ways of earning money without educational attainments, economic reasons for completing schooling are few; and



- wealthy parents often reduce motivation to earn by providing the ‘luxury’ goods that otherwise the young persons would need to work to be able to afford”.<sup>61</sup>

Sirageldin, Sherbiny and Serageldin (1984), in their book “Saudis in Transition: The Challenges of the Changing Labor Market”<sup>62</sup> studied the Saudi economy with special reference to the challenges of a changing labour market. The main objective of the study was to understand the main variables and processes in the shifting condition of the labour market of Saudi Arabia during the late 1970s. This study explored factors such as labour mobility between locations and jobs, wage determination, job seeking and skill formation.

Skill formation was examined through a study of the factors of literacy and education.<sup>63</sup> The authors examined both the short and long term approaches of the Saudi government to skill formation. Short term adjustments included filling labour market gaps by foreign workers or by improving either the mobility or capabilities (for example, using training programmes of the Saudi work-force or its capabilities). They believed that in the long term attention needed to be given to the existing stock of labour and to those entering the labour market. The authors stated that the Saudi governments commitment to universal education reflected this need.

In reviewing the basic skills available in the Saudi labour force, the authors studied the provision for training in the necessary skills. A field survey was undertaken in order to discover the type and amount of pre-job training amongst Saudi workers in both the public and private sector. The result revealed that training “concentrated on clerical skills for public establishments workers and in technical skills for private establishment workers.”<sup>64</sup> All respondents to the survey agreed that the training was relevant to their work. In examining the provisions of in company training in order to influence manpower policy, the authors carried out a multivariate analysis with the aim of establishing whether “education and past training was relevant to current training.”<sup>65</sup> In the household sample they considered five variables, age, region, urban/rural, past training, and income adequacy. They found that positively related factors included past training and urban/rural, while age, region and income adequacy were all



negatively related to current training. Past training and age had the expected effect and were the two most significant variables in the household sample.<sup>66</sup>

When the authors looked at long term skill formation, through the Government's two-pronged approach to both human resources (education and vocational and technical training) and social development (health care, family care, and child and youth care), the results were considered "no less than spectacular."<sup>67</sup> They concluded that whether looking at training in the short term or education in the long term there was ample evidence of skill formation in the Saudi population and that "this is a positive development in view of the continuously increasingly complexity of new technologies which are being introduced at various levels of the Saudi economy."<sup>68</sup>

Sirageldin, Sherbiny and Serageldin commented that between 1965 and 1980 the growth in number of schools, classes and enrolled students was phenomenal. However, they stated "technical education seems to have been the only area where government efforts have fallen somewhat short of expectations."<sup>69</sup> The authors identified that in the 1980s qualitative improvements were still necessary and that the government's attempt to provide vocational training by pre-vocational and vocational centres had failed to attract sufficient entrants.

Al-Khouli (1985) in his study "Forecasting Manpower Skills by Occupation and Nationality in a Petrodollar-Surplus Economy: The Case of Saudi Arabia" stated that the labour market in Saudi Arabia:

"shared several features with other developing countries, and even more features with oil-based developing countries; but Saudi Arabia has unique economic policy requirement and needs a special mix of structural changes in order to improve employment condition."<sup>70</sup>

Developing this analysis of a unique economic policy requirement he argued that the main characteristics of the Saudi labour force which explain some of the causes of labour constraint on Saudi development include:

- a relatively small national manpower force due both to the small indigenous population and to the low of employment of females;



- a shortage of skilled manpower because of attitudes to certain occupations and to a lack of training;
- sudden increases in labour demand which do not correspond with the availability of labour;
- the shift in economic targets from the easy ones aimed at improving the lot of the indigenous people to one of economic diversification of the country;
- technological development and management and administrative training being insufficient due, in part, to the techniques applicable in advanced countries not being used in or inappropriate to Saudi Arabia's social structure; and
- the dependence on expatriate manpower is higher than desirable: foreign workers social and economic demands require additional immigrants.<sup>71</sup>

The wide range of factors highlighted by al-Khouli contributes considerably to the debate on manpower shortage in Saudi Arabia, although he fails to account for the specific role of higher education within this problem.

The 1992 study by Al-Towaijri "The Labour Market in Saudi Arabia: Family Effects, Compensating Wage Differentials, and Selectivity Bias" highlighted the structural imbalances in the labour market within Saudi Arabia. The author discussed the shortage of women in the work-force, which is not of relevance to this study. More importantly, the study highlighted the problem of high employment in the public sector compared with the private sector. The analysis concluded that three reasons account for this feature. Al-Towaijri argued that:

"first, work in the government sector is available in almost every town in Saudi Arabia. Working in the government sector does not require labour mobility, which avoids the costs of leaving the family. Second there is job security since the government is the only owner of all natural resources and therefore directs the economy. Third, work in the public sector calls for a variety of job skills, making it easy for many people to find jobs in this sector."<sup>72</sup>

#### **2.3.2.4. Saudization**

The official policy to reduce dependence on expatriate labour and to introduce relevant training programmes for the Saudi work-force is of particular relevance to this study



and has been termed Saudization. The concept has been emphasised from the Third Development Plan (1980-1985). An early acknowledgement of the importance of Saudization can be found in the 1982 study by Shaw and Long entitled "Saudi Arabian Modernization." The authors argued that an early achievement of the goal of Saudization is not possible as "the most optimistic forecast.....sets a minimal date for such a goal at AD 2020."<sup>73</sup>

Viola (1986) studied one aspect of the attempt at Saudization which was the 'in-company' training. This policy it was hoped would assist the objective of Saudization. The author found that because of the lack of collaborative planning between the major companies involved the result was an ineffective "plethora of training patterns."<sup>74</sup> While many commentators look to education as the means to provide both enlightenment and the necessary skills of the indigenous people, Viola suggested that training may not be the only avenue to Saudization of the work-force. She pointed out that despite flexibility in the organisation system the companies still have problems in finding Saudi nationals to hire.

A study of how the policy of Saudization has affected the manpower development in the Saudi Arabian National Guard Hospitals was undertaken by Al-Shalawi in 1988.<sup>75</sup> He widened the scope of the concerns of Saudization from merely solving the problems of manpower supply, to also include manpower development and manpower retention. The conclusion was that

"the political and social priority attached to the strategy of Saudization has yet to be matched in terms of specific practical objectives and vigorous studies of its ongoing achievements, successes and problems.....There is room for, and need of significant levels of practical activity ....if the strategy is to develop beyond the level of rhetoric and if the potential that is contained within the Saudi population is to be fully developed."<sup>76</sup>

In an article entitled "Patterns of Human Resource Development in Saudi Arabia" (1991) Looney focused on ten principal manpower implications of the development strategy.<sup>77</sup> He argued that it was unrealistic to expect all areas of employment to be Saudi-ized within the next ten years. Consequently, he stated that the authorities would require to establish a number of priorities. The focus, he forecast, would be:



“on those segments of the labour force that only Saudis can serve best - national security and the preservation and enrichment of the Kingdom’s cultural traditions. Specifically these would include the Saudization of all ministries...and the Saudization of certain human services and cultural enhancement programmes.”<sup>78</sup>

Looney also highlighted a further reason why the Saudi authorities ought to follow the policy of Saudization. This reason was the anticipated shortfall in suitably qualified western personnel by the mid-1990s, which would result in the Saudis having to pay higher wages to attract the numbers of foreigners necessary to maintain the development programme.

#### **2.3.2.5. The Development of Education**

It is necessary to examine how the education system of Saudi Arabia has developed since the 1970s in order to consider its relevance to the education debate. Investment in formal education has increased considerably over the last twenty years. However, a number of writers have been critical of the role that the education system has played in the development of Saudi Arabia. Al-Qahtani (1991) provided a typical example in his work “Career Choice of Saudi Arabian Male Public Sector Employees: Career Orientation and Individual Demographic Characteristics” in which he stated that “education has been the core of human resource development in all five-year plans of Saudi Arabia during the last 20 years, but these plans did not pay any attention to the quality and shortcomings of the educational system.”<sup>79</sup>

Roy (1992) stated that “Saudi Arabia has in the last two decades transformed its educational standard: there are more students attending at every level and more completing their education.”<sup>80</sup> Furthermore, women were gaining from education, seven universities had been built and the range and breadth of curricula offered had been vastly extended. He also argued that the public has been instilled with considerable respect for education and with an awareness of the need for it. Thus education has been “one of the wisest investments that the government has made. The lowest class and poorest Saudi recognised that the only way for his children to advance was by acquiring education.”<sup>81</sup> However, in spite of this progress he argued that there were still major problems concerning the quality of education at elementary and



secondary levels, in particular the need to increase overall levels of literacy in Saudi Arabia. While there has been considerable investment in educational infrastructure and in student numbers Roy saw a need for Saudi Arabia to “shift from the quantitative to the qualitative, from the rapid physical growth of the 1970s to a review of present educational policies which perhaps no longer apply, given pervasive shortages of manpower.”<sup>82</sup> The review would allow the government to address the more basic problem which the author argued was “the lack of quality in the education programme and the difficulty of instilling the appropriate work ethic in Saudi nationals.”<sup>83</sup>

The author also examined whether the resultant rise in literacy was desired for its own sake or for qualifications to assist with employment. The government tended to reinforce the former view because of the lack of job relevance in education. Educated Saudis wanted employment in the government sector and whole job categories had become the exclusive preserve of migrant workers, thus reinforcing the Saudi nationals desire not to work in those categories.<sup>84</sup>

In a study of the Saudi Arabian Public Personnel Administration (1992) Al-Sultan, stated that:

“a national policy for manpower development in Saudi Arabia is essential...all manpower development involves national educational and training provision. Saudi Arabia's current public service manpower inadequacies arise in part from a lack of fit between the output of the educational system and the requirements of the service.”<sup>85</sup>

Thus he emphasised the need not only for national planning and policy, but also for co-ordination and co-operation between the educational system and the end user.

## **2.4. HIGHER EDUCATION AND MANPOWER**

Every nation requires from its higher education system students which have the knowledge and skills that are needed to meet that country's manpower requirement. However, this objective is not an easy matter to attain. This section aims to cover a number of the important studies, which have examined the problem facing various countries in their attempts to rectify the shortfall.



### 2.4.1 GENERAL LITERATURE

In examining the labour market and qualified labour, Whybrew (1973) “Trends in the Labour for Highly Qualified Manpower” considered the impact of the rapid increase in economically active graduates in the UK, i.e. a developed country. He discovered that there was a general upward trend in the numbers of university graduates who were still seeking employment six months after graduating. In his study, he found that there was a general deterioration in the market for qualified labour and that there was “a tendency for the jobs being done by the average graduate to have characteristics increasingly like those currently done by workers who have not been through courses of higher education.”<sup>86</sup> Graduates in this situation could be expected to ask to what end have they completed their studies. However, there was no large scale unemployment of graduates, such as is found in some developing countries.<sup>87</sup>

In a study edited by Oliver Fulton (1981) titled “Access to Higher Education” education policy was examined in relation to the changing economic conditions in the UK and the extent to which its higher education system met present and future economic demand. His concern was to discover the best way of ensuring enrolment in the universities, in the appropriate subjects to meet future manpower demands. His conclusion was interesting because he argued that one of the main constraints on changing the present system was that many academics would be interested only in preserving their discipline rather than increasing the level of access for all. Furthermore, the present system merely “reflected...if not reinforced”<sup>88</sup> the social structure. Therefore, there would be considerable resistance to changing the system.

Scott (1994) carried out a study of the British University crisis, post-Robbins, in terms of its place and numbers in a rapidly changing society against a background of a reduction in resources. He considered the changing emphasis from demand-led provision at the time of the Robbins Committee in the 1960s, to one of a concern with supply in 1980s. The author stated “today the predominant policy concern is different - how can the system supply enough graduates of the right type to meet the needs of industry and the economy at large?”<sup>89</sup> This problem is therefore similar to that facing Saudi Arabia, where the demands of industrialisation need to take priority over the



demands of the student. He considered that higher education's relationship with the labour market had gained a high profile and that priorities were beginning to be considered on the basis of the needed supply of skills and knowledge rather than “the drift of student demand.”<sup>90</sup> He looked at education as a ‘producer’ and how flexible the product was, i.e., how transferable were the skills acquired. This study reached the conclusion that most university courses did not match and serve the real needs of society and this could be a sign of the failure of the mission<sup>91</sup> of the universities.

These three studies analysed the position in a developed country, whereas Byron and Samir in their 1983 book “Education in the Arab World” studied the developing world. They stated clearly that in their opinion “graduate schools should be restructured to meet the developing demands of the communities they serve.”<sup>92</sup> From their study it is apparent that they believed that universities in the Arab States are facing challenges which go beyond their limits. They stated that this was due to students from secondary education being ill-prepared to enter university; the difficulty of forecasting potential number of students entering university; the governors of universities seeing them as extensions of the country’s civil service; the lack of academic freedom in some Arab countries and the inability of the universities to change public attitudes. They concluded that “limited resources, facilities, research centres, and trained manpower, in addition to the rapid increase of the establishment of new colleges and universities is not helping.”<sup>93</sup>

While Byron and Samir highlighted a number of structural problems, Mursi (1985) in his book “Higher Education and its Responsibilities in the Development of the Gulf States”<sup>94</sup> concentrated on a systemic analysis. He examined the attitudes of the universities towards the problems of the education system as it sought to produce the skilled manpower the nation needed. In particular he explored the relationship between higher education and industrial and agricultural education. The study recommended that the universities and the research units in the region should co-operate with the productivity agencies and should help these agencies to develop. The numbers of students enrolled in the universities and their subject of study ideally should be according to the development needs of the economy.<sup>95</sup>



In order to illustrate that the problems faced by Saudi Arabia are not unique in the Arab World Rabuh's (1988) study of the Egyptian government's development strategy was examined. Rabuh found that although Egypt was more developed than Saudi Arabia with a longer history of higher education, nevertheless it was facing a similar crisis in higher education in relation to its labour market and development. He pointed out that higher education in Egypt faced internal and external problems, which reflected the lack of consistency between the supply and demand for manpower, and the imbalance in the demand for subjects in the universities. He recommended that the enrolment policy to the universities should be limited by the local revenue and should take into account the opportunities for work. He suggested that a stable public labour market is a good indication that human resources are utilised in the proper way.<sup>96</sup>

A further study which is highly relevant to this thesis was conducted al-Jaber in 1994. The study, entitled "The Relationship Between University and the Job Market in Saudi Arabia as Perceived by Administrators of Some Government and Private Organisations"<sup>97</sup> surveyed a number of students who had graduated from the Gulf Universities. It looked at their subjects of study, their post-graduate employment and how this occupation related to their subject of study. In order to gain the information they designed three types of questionnaire which were distributed to three different groups: the teachers at the universities in the Gulf States; the graduate who are now working in Government agencies; and the director-managers and the directors of personnel affairs in the public and private sectors. The results of this study showed that there were more graduates who held humanities and art degrees than there were those who held scientific and technical qualifications. Indeed those who held humanities and art degrees were too numerous to be absorbed into the labour market whereas those who held scientific/technical and applied science were degree less than the market needed.

The researchers concluded that there had been failure to establish a balance between the supply of and the demand for the newly graduated students and that the majority of graduates were employed in a job which was not related to the subject of study. The researchers believed that this had occurred because there was no relationship between the Higher Education Units and the job recruitment agencies. The researchers



emphasised that relations should be established between the public market and the universities. Furthermore, the universities should play a major role to service the needs of society based on the relationships established with the recruitment agencies. Therefore, they should establish a policy or strategy for the future to correlate the manpower planning and education to meet economic demand.<sup>98</sup>

#### **2.4.2. LITERATURE ON SAUDI ARABIA**

The literature to be examined in this section deals with the expansion of higher education and how far it was successful in dealing with the shortage of manpower in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia. Also analysed is the literature on how to change the university system of training for work and also how the indigenous people could be attracted to study subjects relevant to the country's needs.

The necessity for the university system to produce graduates with the knowledge and skills in the areas that are required by the labour market, was referred to by Sirageldin, Sherbiny and Serageldin (1984). They commented in their book "Saudis in Transition" that the Third Plan showed a continued commitment to the expansion of university education, especially in the areas of commerce, science, medicine and engineering. Sirageldin, Sherbiny and Serageldin pointed to the impressive growth in the University system (from 3,000 students to more than 36,000 over a fifteen year period) but whilst there was a commitment to expand in more technical subjects, "arts and Islamic studies continue to attract the university enrolments and graduates."<sup>99</sup>

The Saudi government held the belief that the universities were crucial in providing manpower for the government agencies. Therefore, in 1988 a seminar was organised by the Institute of Public Administration (IPA) at Riyadh in the hope that it would shed some light on the present situation and suggest the best method of overcoming the manpower shortage problem. Six papers were presented by people in charge of manpower planning. The titles of the papers were:



- To What Extent the Government Agencies have Benefited from University Graduates and what Kind of Factors Influenced these Benefits (by Al Shahri-Abdullah, Saad Al-Shumrani and Hamed Atyah from IPA);
- Co-ordination Problems in Higher Education (by Hamud Al-Badr and Khaled Al Sayf from King Saud University);
- National Manpower Planning under the Shadow of Present Development and a Future Forecast (by an official from the Ministry of Planning);
- The Labour Council Team in the National Labour Development with Special Consideration for Higher Education in the Kingdom (Hussain Al-Mansuri);
- The Civil Service Bureau and University Graduates Appointed in the Public Sector (by the Deputy of the Civil Service Bureau, Athman Abraheem);
- How the University Plans its Education Program (by Hamud Al Badr from King Saud University).

The authors of these papers agreed that there were many difficulties and obstacles facing the Universities' manpower planning, including technical, administrative, information and co-ordination factors. They concluded that the present unsatisfactory situation resulted in university graduates holding certificates which do not meet the requirement of employees. They suggested that the Government should expand vocational and technical education and give more time to the counselling of students so that they could be directed into courses which would provide them with skills to meet the demand of manpower in both the public and private sectors of the Kingdom. When the authors considered the enrolment policy within the universities they stressed that it should be related to the manpower needs in order to avoid duplication of subjects and furthermore not to institute new subjects unless specifically required by the development needs.<sup>100</sup>

Al-Qarni in his 1990 article "The Relationship between Higher Education Programmes and Social Needs in Saudi Arabia" agreed with other authors that the students were attracted more to the arts than to the natural science and technical subjects. However, he identified other factors which he considered to be more significant for the shortfall in suitable candidates. The author believed that two problems existed. At the pre-



university stage there was a lack of career counselling during the school period. Furthermore, there was a lack of competition between the universities in Saudi Arabia as the students were not provided with different subject choices. He put forward the suggestion that a way of solving the manpower problem was to restructure the country's education system and establish a High Council to co-ordinate the universities and the recruitment agencies.<sup>101</sup>

## **2.5. HUMAN RESOURCE AND VOCATIONAL AND TECHNICAL EDUCATION DEVELOPMENT**

This section of the review addresses specifically manpower development with reference to vocational and technical education (VTE). Alaki (1972) identified the major problems of industrial vocational education in Saudi Arabia and the consequent contributions that this sector made to the labour market of the country in terms of technicians and skilled workers. He examined the needs of education in the overall manpower programs as well as identifying new strategies and action programs for the Saudi Arabian industrial vocational education system. The vocational training centres of the Ministry of Labour do attempt to provide the private sector with semi-skilled and skilled workers. However, as Alaki pointed out vocational education is less desirable to Saudi youths, because VTE is looked down on by the majority of parents, regardless of their own educational background. This attitude of disdain places a limit on enrolment in VTE. The other issue he highlighted concerns the poor quality of teachers and administrators in the existing industrial vocational schools, which Alaki showed to have a great impact on the quality of learning and on the expansion of this system of education. Also Alaki noted that the existing buildings used for industrial vocational schools were not suited to this type of education. He further stated that most of the graduates of the vocational schools joined the public sector, leaving the private sector to depend partially on their own on-the-job training (OJT) programs but mostly through hiring of foreign workers as technicians. In Alaki's opinion this shortage of personnel results from an apparent lack of co-operation between leaders of industry and leaders of industrial vocational education.<sup>102</sup>



Al-Mulla (1980) studied the system for evaluating the administration and effectiveness of vocational education programs in Saudi Arabia. He found that vocational secondary schools have great impact on the development of manpower needs and the national goal of eliminating dependence on foreign manpower. Al-Mulla further stated that a permanent on-going follow-up system should be instituted to determine the career patterns of graduates and drop-outs from the vocational education system. Because of the lack of research done in the area of evaluation administration, Al-Mulla also recommended that a special task force be set up to study and prepare a specific set of guide-lines for evaluating administrators in Saudi Arabia vocational education institutions. The study provided a format which could contribute to the overall improvement of vocational education in Saudi Arabia. Furthermore, it specifically developed a system for evaluating the effectiveness of vocational education programs and their administration.<sup>103</sup> However, although this study is 16 years old Saudi Arabia is still going through the problem of dependence on foreign skilled workers.

In 1980, Saad in his study "Guidance Services for Vocational Technical Schools in Saudi Arabia" produced a program of guidance services that would be workable within the vocational training programs in Saudi Arabia. The suggestion to provide guidance to fulfil the needs of the students enrolled in vocational training programs was significant because until then, vocational training programs in Saudi Arabia had not been backed up by a formal guidance or a counselling service.<sup>104</sup>

While the previous three writers analysed the system of VTE in Saudi Arabia, Al-Ghofaily (1980) concentrated on the attitudes of Saudi youths towards work and vocational education. This study examined the effects of the general attitudes of youth young people to the development process in Saudi Arabia. He found that young in Saudi Arabia had a strong hostility to the concept of manual labour, private jobs, mobility of work, economic incentives, working with strangers, and general vocational work. Al-Ghofaily pointed out that people in Saudi Arabia have modern consumption attitudes but still maintain traditional production attitudes. He suggested that in order to promote the image of vocational education among Saudi youth, extensive public relations programs should be carried out to help students and their parents to



understand the improvement vocational education could make on the prosperity of Saudi Arabia and also the importance for individual development.<sup>105</sup>

A more recent study by Roy (1992) about VTE training came to the conclusion that in general “the absolute number of Saudis in the technical/vocational stream is far below what is required.”<sup>106</sup> This was despite the creation in 1980 of a new authority, the General Organisation of Technical and Vocational Education (GOTEVT) which was intended to give a stronger centralised direction to the effort to draw more nationals into the system. He highlighted a number of conclusions which are of relevance to this study firstly, he noted a new curriculum was needed to meet the requirements for a stronger science and technology orientation in basic education, as well as improved standards. Secondly, Roy stated “one would have to conclude that improving the quality and relevance of education is the major priority.”<sup>107</sup> He also commented that the education budget did not reflect the needs of Saudization. Finally, he argued status, prestige and tradition play a role in the failure to attract students to VTE which will make the Kingdom continue to depend on foreign labour.<sup>108</sup>

Another recent study in 1992, “Manpower Development in the Industrial, Petroleum, Electricity and Desalination Sectors in the Gulf States” which although focusing on the Gulf states in general, is still extremely relevant to this thesis. The work highlighted seven points of importance which the study considered to be the main resource of manpower development. These points were as follows:

- the segregation between the general academic education and VTE which exists in the final year in high school, gives each its distinguishing features;
- VTE was marginal in comparison with the general academic education in the 1970s and still remains weak;
- this represents the last chance for students to gain an education after their failure to find a place in the general academic sector;
- VTE is a closed system which does not give the student the chance to pursue a higher education;
- VTE has two objectives, general knowledge and practical skills but due to the short period of study the students fall between two stools;



- there is a lack of liaison between the vocational and technical institutions and the agencies with whom the students would be employed the agencies should be involved in the planning of the curriculum and the type of training given to ensure suitably qualified students; and
- there is not a strong relationship between the vocational and technical institutions and the universities in terms of co-operation, assistance, research and the provision of academic staff.<sup>109</sup>

## **2.6. CONCLUSION**

The literature which has been reviewed in this chapter proved useful in many ways for the purposes of this study. Firstly, the researcher was able to gain a grounding in understanding the importance of the relationship between education, in general, and higher education, in particular, and employment to the success of the development of an economy. This relationship was considered to be of even more importance in developing countries, such as Saudi Arabia where literacy and higher education, until recently, were still an underdeveloped human resource.

Secondly, the review enabled the researcher to understand the problems associated with manpower. Again, the situation of Saudi Arabia differed from the developed world in a number of ways as it was influenced by a unique set of variables. These factors included the size of the population which were not yet able to enter the labour market because of their age, the cultural and traditional constraints on the Saudi people which affected their choice of education and career and the previous lack of education.

The situation in Saudi Arabia was also influenced to a considerable extent by the influx of oil wealth which allowed the implementation of a massive program of industrialisation. The literature review allowed the researcher to understand the problems which the development had created for Saudi Arabia, in terms of the ever increasing number of foreign workers. This influx brought forth the policy of Saudization.



It was apparent from the literature that no systematic attempt had been undertaken to analyse the tensions caused by the contradictory requirements of the Saudization program and the development plans and how higher education was expected to be able to solve the problem, either nationally or in Assir region.

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- <sup>105</sup> Al-Ghofaily, F., "Saudi Youth Attitudes Toward Work in Vocational Education: A Constraint on Economic Development", (Ph.D. thesis, University of Florida, 1980), pp.15 and 130.
- <sup>106</sup> Roy, D.A., op.cit., p.499.
- <sup>107</sup> Ibid., p.506.
- <sup>108</sup> Ibid., p.77.
- <sup>109</sup> King Saud University, College of Education, op. cit., pp.16-17.



# **CHAPTER THREE**

## **BACKGROUND**

### **3.1. INTRODUCTION**

Chapter three provides the background which is necessary to provide an understanding of the context of development in Saudi Arabia. The first section looks at the geography and climate. Next, the history of the development of population is explained. The third section discusses the pre-oil economy, which is followed by a brief review of the foundation of the modern economy. Section five looks at the creation of the machinery of development planning. In section six, a brief outline of the first five development plans is put forward. Next, the form of government and administration in Saudi Arabia is discussed. Finally, details of the Assir region are revealed.

### **3.2. GEOGRAPHICAL FEATURES AND CLIMATE**

The Kingdom of Saudi Arabia is located at the furthestmost part of south-western Asia. It is bordered to the west by the Red Sea, to the east by the Arabian Gulf, the United Arab Emirates and Qatar, to the north by Kuwait, Iraq and Jordan and to the south by Yemen and Oman. It lies between 16° and 32° South and 35° and 55° North and covers an area of about 2.25 million square kilometres, and occupying about four-fifths of the Arab peninsular<sup>1</sup> (see map 1). The considerable area which is uninhabitable has resulted in Saudi Arabia having one of the lowest population densities in the Middle East. The gross density of the country is only 7.508 persons per square kilometre.

The natural setting of the country can be divided into 6 geographical regions as follows:

1. The Rub Al-Khali (empty quarter) and other deserts in the central and northern regions which account for 50% of the total geographical area;



MAP 1 THE EMIRATES OF SAUDI ARABIA



Source: Adapted from Kingdom of Saudi Arabia Ministry of Interior, designed by Principality of Assir and King Khalid Military College, *Assir Region Atlas*. (Riyadh: National Guard Printing Press, 1985).



2. The central plateau covering 32% of the country;
3. Hijaz and Assir mountains covering 7% of the country;
4. Tihama and the Western coastal plain covering 2% of the country;
5. The Eastern lowlands covering 5% of the country;
6. The Northern and Al-Jouf region covering 4% of the total geographical area.<sup>2</sup>

The Kingdom has a varied topographical structure which strongly influenced early settlement. The great deserts of the Rub Al Khali, Nafud and Dahna and the *sabkha* (the soft sand) which cover the coastal region. confined early settlement to the Hijaz (the western region), the Assir mountains (the southern region), the Tihama and western coastal plains, as well as the watershed areas in the west and central regions.<sup>3</sup>

### **3.2.1. CLIMATE**

The climate in general in Saudi Arabia is hot and dry, and relatively mild in winter<sup>4</sup> but as the country is so vast the climate varies from one region to another. On the coasts humidity of 100% can be reached, while in many parts of the territory there are huge changes between day and night temperatures. Rainfall is less than 50 millimetres per year for much of the country<sup>5</sup>, except in the moderate climate of the southern region, which has on the mountains a maximum of 300 millimetres annual rainfall.<sup>6</sup>

### **3.3. HISTORY OF POPULATION DEVELOPMENT IN SAUDI ARABIA**

Al-Awaji (1971) pointed out that the population of Saudi Arabia could be characterised by certain common features, specifically religion (as all Saudis are Muslim), the Arabic language, the basic cultural traits and the centrality of family in the social structures of tribes, villages and towns.<sup>7</sup>

The first official census was conducted in 1962-63, but the results were later repudiated, by the government. The Central Department of Statistics had made a comprehensive survey of the five major cities (Jeddah, Makkah, Medina, Taif and Riyadh). The results of their survey and the later investigations, arrived at an



estimated population figure for Saudi Arabia of 3.3 million<sup>8</sup>. However, the usefulness of this figure was limited, due to the system of estimating purely from an urban sample.

The second official population census in 1974 estimated that the population of the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia was over seven million (7,012,642) with an annual growth rate of about 4.5 percent. The figures included both Saudis and non-Saudis.<sup>9</sup>

In the third official population census, which was held on 27th. September 1992, the results of the census indicated a population of 16,929,835, of whom the Saudis numbered 12,304,835, representing 72.7% of the total population: the total for males was 6,211,213, representing 50.5% of the total Saudi population, while the total female population was 6,093,622 representing 49.5% of the Saudi population. The non-Saudis totalled 4,624,459, which represented 27.3% of the total population.<sup>10</sup>

The results of the 1992 census for Assir region are displayed in table 3.1. The percentage of non-Saudis in the region is only 14.2%, which is considerably lower than the national average of 27.3%.

**Table 3.1. Population in Assir in 1992**

Saudis			Non-Saudis			Total		
Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
565607	584011	1149618	146439	43254	189693	712046	627265	1339311

Source: Kingdom of Saudi Arabia Ministry of Finance, Central Department of Statistics, *Al-Natâ'idj al-Awaliyyah li Ti'dâd al-'Âm li Sukkân wa al-Masâken li 'âm 1413* [The Preliminary Results of the 1992 Census of the General Population and Housing], (Riyadh: Central Department of Statistics, 1993), p.4.

It should be noted that census figures have to be used on a best-available-figure basis, as there has been a strong resentment to government officials and their intrusion into a man's house. This problem was worsened by their being few accurate figures available for the nomadic Bedouin. One estimate argues that "the nomadic population is thought to have comprised between one-quarter and one half of the whole."<sup>11</sup>

The exploration of the oil resources of Saudi Arabia necessitated the first influence of foreign workers. However, with the subsequent development plans the number of



such workers has increased dramatically. A seminar (entitled 'The Non-Saudi Workers and Saudization') was held in Riyadh on the 6th. December 1995, by the Labour Force Council, to address this situation. The seminar was supervised by the Ministry of the Interior which has the responsibility to draw up strategic plans for the human resources development in the country. In this seminar there was an official paper submitted by the Ministry of the Interior which estimated that the figures for non-Saudis in the country in 1995 was 6,256,332, including their families (1,625,501).<sup>12</sup>

### **3.4. THE PRE-OIL ECONOMY**

When King Abdul-Aziz established the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia in 1932, foreign powers considered it a relatively minor occurrence. The new kingdom was seen as an empty desert region, ruled by a staunchly religious Islamic family.<sup>13</sup>

Prior to the unification there was no coherent economic integration or organisation in the country, in terms of either the government or the private sector. Economic activity was confined to raising livestock by the Bedouin, basic agriculture around the sources of water, fishing on the east and north west coasts and the production of simple tools by craftsmen to serve other simple activities. The only major exports consisted of dates and Arabian horses, which were required by the British Army in India. In the north west of Saudi Arabia (the Hijaz), there was greater economic activity than elsewhere as a result of pilgrims visiting holy sites such as Makka and Medina. The population of this region was almost completely dependent on the consumption and other spending of pilgrim traffic. People in other parts of the country could not benefit from this economic activity. Most of the population lived in condition of extreme poverty. The unification of the country in 1932 created the appropriate conditions for economic development.

The government of Saudi Arabia prior to the 1950s was minimal, partly as a result of Muslim tradition and partly for practical reasons, as government revenue was tiny; the government raised revenue through the collection of *zakat* (religious donations from pilgrims to the holy shrines), and customs duties. Much of the governments income



depended on pilgrims, and when these pilgrims did not come, as in the Depression years of the 1930s and during the Second World War, the country was in great financial difficulty. By 1932 the number of pilgrims had fallen to 40,000,<sup>14</sup> from a figure of 100,000 in 1923. It was only as a result of oil revenues that the government has been able to expand its operations.

### **3.5. THE BEGINNING OF THE MODERN ECONOMY**

The small income that the Kingdom received from pilgrims led King Abdul-Aziz to examine the possibilities of obtaining revenue from other sources. He was aware that the Iranian government secured an income of millions of pounds annually from petroleum extraction. Therefore, the King sought to gain income from a similar source. This led to a meeting with an American businessman called Crane, “who was well-known for his love for the Arabs and for his readiness to assist them particularly in the mineral field.”<sup>15</sup> Crane offered at his own expense the services of an American geologist called Twitchell, who had already been previously employed in Yemen and Ethiopia. Twitchell found oil in Al-Hasa and gold in Hijaz, even though previous British expeditions had denied the existence of oil within the Kingdom. The British General Eastern Petroleum Company had prematurely relinquished the exploration concession granted to them and defaulted on a payment of 6,000 gold sovereigns. The General Eastern Petroleum Company was unwilling to bid for the rights to extract the oil, as the defaulted money would have to be paid prior to competing for the concession, while the other competitor, the British-owned Iraq Petroleum Company was unwilling to pay an advance of over 10,000 gold sovereigns (the negotiator that was sent was only allowed to offer £5,000). The American competitor, the Standard Oil Company of California secured the contract by offering to raise its advance payment to 50,000 gold sovereigns, and also offered a loan of the same amount upon the discovery of oil in commercial quantities.<sup>16</sup> The foresight of the Americans was remarkable, especially as the United States had no political or economic presence in Saudi Arabia at the time. It was not until 1942 that the Americans established a Legation in the Kingdom.



A major oil field was discovered in 1938 was soon confirmed as one of the largest in the world. Despite the intervention of the Second World War, the Arabian American Oil Company (ARAMCO) was formed in 1939 by Standard Oil of California, the Texas Oil Company, Standard Oil of New Jersey and Socony Vacuum to exploit the resources.<sup>17</sup>

**Table 3.2. Oil Production and Revenues, Selected Years 1938 - 1975**

Year	Oil Production (Million Barrels)		Posted Price (\$/Barrel)	Government Oil Revenue	
	ARAMCO	Others	Arabian Light	\$/barrel	Total \$m
1938	0.5				
1940	5.1				1.5
1945	21.3				5.0
1950	199.5		1.710	0.56	112.0
1955	352.2	4.4	1.930	0.82	288.0
1960	456.5	25.0	1.800	0.75	355.0
1965	739.1	65.8	1.800	0.83	655.0
1970	1295.3	91.4	1.800	0.88	1200.0
1971	1641.6	99.0	2.285	1.25	2149.0
1972	2098.4	103.6	2.479	1.44	3107.0
1973	2677.1	95.5	5.176	1.96	7200.0
1974	2996.5	98.5	11.251	9.45	27700.0
1975	2491.8	91.4	12.376	10.10	25700.0

Source: Fallon, N., *Winning Business in Saudi Arabia*, (London: Graham and Trotman Ltd., 1976), p.3

Initially, in the early days of oil extraction there was little change in the Kingdom. Although the oil revenue rose from \$56.7 million in 1950 to \$333.7 million in 1960<sup>18</sup> the lack of economic and social development was leading to problems: Saudi Arabia was producing 1.4 million barrels of oil per day, but the oil companies were paying less than \$2.00 per barrel. During the 1950s, the results were apparent in the improvements in communications links within the Kingdom: roads, railways, telegraph, telephone, radio and air traffic. The period also saw a growth in the urban population. By 1955, the populations of Riyadh and Jeddah had both grown to between 100,000 and 150,000. Only after abdication of King Saud in 1965 with the reign of King Faisal was there significant major economic planning and the development “moved into all fields at once.”<sup>19</sup> This was financed by an increase in production to 7.6 million barrels



per day and a price increase to \$3.60 per barrel. The revenue from oil income grew dramatically especially following the price rise in 1973 (see table 3.2).

Between 1964 and 1986 there were improvements in medical services, housing and education. Over this period, for example the numbers of pupils/students at all levels increased by a factor of ten to reach 2.2 million and seven universities were established. The revenue from oil had increased from under \$1 billion in 1964 to a peak of \$102 billion in 1981, although there were substantial falls after 1981. Large sums of money were invested in defence, but equally, large sums were spent on programmes of building roads, ports, airports, large industrial projects (including the industrial cities of Jubail and Yanbu), and agricultural expansion through irrigation and mechanisation, which greatly increased wheat production.<sup>20</sup>

Under King Faisal, there was initially a period of restraint which was intended to restore the orderly nature of the finances of the country, followed by rapid development. The broad lines of development were established in the 1960s: these were to give the country a modern infrastructure and then to make use of the Kingdom's resources of oil and gas as the basis for a variety of other industries. The state initiated projects with the intention of handing them later to the private sector.<sup>21</sup>

### **3.6. THE CREATION OF THE MACHINERY OF DEVELOPMENT PLANNING**

Planning is important for any country aiming to develop and stimulate its economy. It is crucially important for a developing country to build up its basic economic infrastructure and develop its economic sectors in order to compete with other countries which have a more advantageous position. The nature of the planning required is determined by the needs and requirements of the particular country and its society. Therefore, it is important to establish a plan which can meet this objective. Saudi Arabia is seen as a developing country with both a unique economic structure and a unique society.



Formal planning only began seriously to be carried out in 1970, though there had been an element of planning in 1959 when Prince Faisal, the Prime Minister, established the Economic Development Committee (EDC). The main reason for creating the committee was not to produce a development plan, but to overcome the immediate financial problems that faced the Kingdom. The EDC which was under the supervision of the Minister of Finance and National Economy consisted of six financial, economic and industrial advisers, including Anwar Ali the newly appointed Governor of Saudi Arabia Monetary Agency (SAMA). There were also members from other government departments, such as commerce, agriculture, education, health, oil and minerals and communication.

This body did not have an easy assignment, especially as it started its planning with little reliable data, no skilled personnel, poor communications, and a shortage of money to finance the project. This situation forced King Faisal to replace this committee in 1961 with the Supreme Planning Board. According to Nehme “both the committee and the board were unsuccessful, because they became involved in the problem of the business community rather projecting future plans and solutions.”<sup>22</sup>

In 1963 further recognition of the problems facing the country resulted in the formation of the Administrative Reform Programme at the same time the Institute of Public Administration suggested that the government contact the Ford Foundation, request that a team of experts survey the problems of administration in Saudi Arabia. In October 1963 the Saudi Arabian Government signed an agreement with the Ford Foundation the which authorised the Foundation to undertake that task which three years.<sup>23</sup> According to al-Tawail:

“The project was established in 1964. with the creation of five teams (the Personnel Team, the Organisation and Management Team, the Team of Financial Affairs, the Team of Manpower and Training, and the Public Workers Team).”<sup>24</sup>

These teams led to a suggestion to establish a new organisation called the Central Planning Organisation (CPO) to take overall responsibility for the economic development plan. The CPO which replaced the Supreme Planning in 1965 was headed



by the Minister of State, Hisham Nazir, with support and assistance of the Stanford Research Institute of California.<sup>25</sup>

The first comprehensive document developed by the CPO was entitled “Planning for Growth.”<sup>26</sup> The plan contained a request for assistance from the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development (IBRD). Experts headed by Dr Zaki Saad from Egypt were brought to Saudi Arabia to study the economic problems and to give suggestions for the best way to develop the available economic resources.<sup>27</sup>

After six months, the experts from the IBRD wrote their report including a number of recommendations, the most important being:

- “the creation of a central body for planning linked to the Presidency of the Council of Ministers in order to set economic development plans and supervise their execution;
- the urgent need for reorganising and developing government bodies; and
- the need for providing qualified manpower to work in government bodies.”<sup>28</sup>

Many recommendations of the IBRD were accepted including the advice to seek help from the United Nations to study the situation with the aim of presenting necessary recommendations for development. Experts gave their advice to the government in many fields such as, agriculture, communications, health, social affairs, and aviation.<sup>29</sup>

### **3.7. THE FIVE YEAR DEVELOPMENT PLANS.**

#### **3.7.1. THE FIRST DEVELOPMENT PLAN (1970-1975)**

The First Development Plan was drawn up by the CPO. The total cost of the plan was estimated to reach SR41,313 million.<sup>30</sup> (see table 3.3) The objectives were: to develop the human resources of the Kingdom; to increase the participation of the various sectors of the economy to enable them to share in the development; and to diversify the economic resources enabling them to participate more effectively in the national revenues. The diversification meant reducing the country's overwhelming dependence on oil revenues; for example in 1969 oil accounted for approximately 50% of GDP.



By 1975/76 the plan aimed to reduce this to 47%. The plan had an aim of increasing the total GNP from SR16 billion in 1969/70 to SR26 billion by 1975/76,<sup>31</sup> which would represent an annual growth of 9.8%.<sup>32</sup> to improve the living standards of the people.

**Table 3.3. First Development Plan Spending Schedule (SR millions)**

Sector	Recurrent	Project	Total
Agriculture	974	494	1468
Industry	322	777	1099
Trade and Services	83	44	127
Economic	1379	1315	2694
Transport and Communications	1767	5709	7476
Utilities and Urban Development	1247	3325	4572
Education and Culture	6150	1228	7378
Health and Social	1613	308	1921
Development	12156	11885	24041
Administration	6795	923	7717
Defence	3980	5575	9555
<b>Total</b>	<b>22931</b>	<b>18382</b>	<b>41313</b>

Source: Fallon, N., *Winning Business in Saudi Arabia*, (London: Graham and Trotman Ltd., 1976), p.4.

The first Five Year Plan was successful in meeting many of its economic targets, such as growth and resource development.<sup>33</sup> Also, a number of social targets for improving standards were achieved, such as those related to water supply, roads, health and educational facilities and housing. It failed, however, to achieve other targets. One of the reasons for the failure was because of the untried nature of the plan with the result that some of the targets were unrealistic.

### **3.7.2. THE SECOND DEVELOPMENT PLAN (1975-1980)**

The Second Development Plan covered the period from July 1975 to May 1980. Because of the huge increases in government income, as a result of the quadrupling of oil prices in 1973 and the general increases in production, this plan was more ambitious than the first plan. Total government expenditure of SR498,230.2 million (about \$134,500 million)<sup>34</sup> was anticipated, up from the total planned expenditure of the first plan of SR41,313 million.<sup>35</sup> Approximately SR318,000 million (64% of total



expenditure) was directed to economic and social development, 15.7% (about SR78,600 million) was allocated to defence spending. Of the remaining amount SR38,200 million (7.7%) and SR64,500 million (12.7%) were directed to 'administration' and 'other spending' (including foreign aid) respectively.<sup>36</sup>

The main aims of the plan for the public sector were: firstly, to build up the physical infrastructure to support the Kingdom's rapid growth; and secondly, to expand the social services, especially in education, health and social security.<sup>37</sup> It is clear that the First and Second Plans did not significantly differ in their objectives. The diversification of the economic resource was the main theme for both plans, along with greater investment in the physical infrastructure and the development of indigenous human resources.

There were three key operational principles for the Second Development Plan. The first was diversification of economic activity, particularly the development of agriculture and various industries; the second was the spread of economic activities throughout the Kingdom, through wide spread investment in projects and social services; and the third was the rapid development of the human resources of the Kingdom.<sup>38</sup> It was intended that all citizens should be assured of an adequate minimum standard of living. Any future improvement was to be as a result of their individual effort and achievement, rather than seeking to develop an oil-funded social welfare state.<sup>39</sup>

The estimate contained in the Second Development Plan was that the number of expatriate workers would have to increase more than the indigenous working population. The number of foreign workers was anticipated to increase by 498,600 to reach 812,600 by 1980, a growth rate of 21% per annum, while the Saudi work-force was expected to increase by 3.4%.<sup>40</sup>

The expansion of government expenditure as seen by the spending of \$2.45 billion<sup>41</sup> on special infrastructure projects and the increasing of personal income both contributed to an increased level of liquidity, and resulted in serious congestion at its ports. The



situation led to an annual inflation rate of over 30% during this planning period. The government responded by reducing the level of liquidity and investing more in the expansion of the seaports. This action decreased the waiting time for incoming loaded ships to 24 hours instead of six months.<sup>42</sup>

### **3.7.3. THE THIRD DEVELOPMENT PLAN (1980-1985)**

The three key medium term objectives for the Third Development Plan were, firstly, a structural change of the economy by diversification and reducing the percentage share of physical infrastructure in total investment; the second objective was to increase the level of participation and social welfare; finally, to increase economic and administrative efficiency.<sup>43</sup> A comparison of the government expenditure in the third plan with that of the previous plans showed that this plan involved an even large expenditure program, a total of SR782.7 billion.<sup>44</sup>

During the course of the early 1980s, many of the infrastructure projects implemented during the previous plans were completed with the result that there was a highly effective communications system established within the country. Also, more ambitious projects were achieved such as the two new industrial cities at Yanbu and Jubail (which cost more to complete than putting a man on the moon). The pace of development caused some strain and overheating within the economy, as well as resulting in a huge influx of foreign workers.

The third plan placed particular emphasis on the development of human resources. Behind this there was a concern with the cultural dimension: “the distinguishing mark of the Saudi approach to development is that its material and social objectives are derived from the ethical principles of Islam and the cultural values of Saudi society.”<sup>45</sup> Furthermore, according to the plan the Second Development Plan period had revealed the following manpower related problem areas which were likely to dominate the Third Plan period:

- “A continuing imbalance between the economy’s demand growing manpower requirements and the number of new Saudi entrants into the labour force;



- The dependence on outmigration from agriculture as an important source of Saudi labour supply for new employment; and
- The restrictive effects of the Government's own demand for Saudi labour on the availability of manpower for other sectors.”<sup>46</sup>

The government invested to increase both the quality and quantity of labour. SR113 billion was spent in the Third Plan, which exceeded the combined total expenditure in the First and Second Plans “raising the total number of educational institutions in the Kingdom to about 11,490.”<sup>47</sup> During the Third Plan 3,900 schools were opened, an average of two schools every day. The total number of students reached 2.1 million, compared with 1.4 million at the end of the second plan.<sup>48</sup>

Higher education also expanded rapidly, and by 1980 the Kingdom had seven universities. There were also ten colleges for girls. The number of students enrolled in higher education reached 91,978.<sup>49</sup> Nonetheless, the country was affected severely by the shortage of technicians, electricians and engineers: the type of skilled workers needed for development activities. The government recognised that this was in part a reflection of the attitude of many Saudis to physical work which they saw as menial. Therefore, several educational training centres, vocational and pre-vocational centres and training institutes were set up to encourage Saudis to enter these jobs. In 1985 there were 4,027 students enrolled in technical high schools, 1223 in eight pre-vocational training colleges and a further 9,235 students in 24 vocational training centres spread around the country.<sup>50</sup> In addition, to increased educational expenditure, the plan also emphasised the need for an improvement in the level of productivity: this was to be achieved through improved training programmes, which were to be in keeping with the economic needs of the country. The plan aimed to redeploy labour away from areas of limited economic potential into sectors with increased opportunities.<sup>51</sup>

Despite these changes, the numbers of graduates left the Kingdom far short of self sufficiency in the labour market. More than 2.66 million foreign workers were employed by 1985.<sup>52</sup> Such a situation created urgent issues to be faced, and therefore



the government gave this problem even more priority in the subsequent development plans.

Turning to the economic record of the Third Development Plan the non-oil GDP registered an average annual growth rate of 6.4%, exceeding the target of 6.2%: this was mostly a result of the growth in the private sector, which grew by an average of 7.9% between 1980 and 1985.<sup>53</sup> Furthermore during this period oil revenues were declining significantly. The real GDP of the oil sector decreased by 15%. This decrease was due to the decline of both the oil price in the world market and also in the quantity exported.<sup>54</sup>

The Saudi Arabian Monetary Agency Annual Report of 1985 reported that the growth of the productive sectors such as electricity, gas and water was at an average of 10.0% per annum.<sup>55</sup> The value added in agriculture in real terms rose by two per cent, due to the increase in government spending in subsidies to this sector. The manufacturing sector (excluding refining) had increased its share of non-oil GDP to reach approximately six per cent in 1985. This was a result of the government's new policy of encouraging private sector investment in this area. The policy included free land on which to build factories, subsidies for rent electricity or fuel, eliminating tax duty on machinery and providing long term loans at little or no interest.<sup>56</sup>

#### **3.7.4. THE FOURTH DEVELOPMENT PLAN (1985-1990)**

The Fourth Plan emphasised the following objectives: reducing the number of foreign workers by encouraging and improving the local labour supply, by ensuring the efficiency and quality of the work-force through education and vocational training; diversifying and expanding the industrial, agricultural and service sectors; encouraging the private sector to take a leading role in economic growth; investing more in and improving the existing facilities; and strengthening the economic and social integration of the members of the Gulf Co-operation Council (GCC).<sup>57</sup>



Previously the development plans had made on reference to the efficiency of the work-force, but now this were seen as important to the state. The private sector was also encouraged for the first time. The plan also concentrated on program and policy rather than specific projects.

Aggregate public spending for the Fourth Development Plan, including military spending, was set at SR1,000 billion<sup>58</sup> of which civilian expenditure was SR 687.5 billion<sup>59</sup> which was higher than the amount budgeted in the third plan. Increased expenditure on the military was considered necessary due to the conflict between Iraq and Iran which could possibly endanger Saudi Arabia's border security. The plan forecast an average growth of four per cent per annum in GDP at constant prices. It aimed to increase the annual growth of the oil sector by 5.6% compared to an annual decline of fifteen per cent during the third plan, and to expand the non-oil contribution to GDP by 2.9% per annum.<sup>60</sup> The manufacturing sector was expected to grow by an average of 15.5% annually.<sup>61</sup> An increased share of government expenditure was to be directed to human resource development: SR135.3 billion as opposed to SR129.6 billion in the Third Plan.<sup>62</sup>

During the period covered by the Fourth Development Plan, the number of male and female students in higher education saw a major growth more than 130,000 students were studying at universities or colleges. In 1990 the number of students graduating from higher education was 15,766. Technical and Vocational education was also expanded to include industrial, commercial, agricultural and technical subjects. There were more than 10,000 students enrolled at technical institutes and a further 9,000 students engaged in vocational training.<sup>63</sup> Despite the increase in VTE there remained a doubt as to whether there were sufficient qualified Saudis to meet the country's needs.<sup>64</sup>



### 3.7.5. THE FIFTH DEVELOPMENT PLAN (1990-1995)

The Fifth Five-Year Development Plan aimed to further expand the provision of education and health, and to promote growth in the agricultural sector.<sup>65</sup> However, in a major change of direction the plan stated that:

“in the past, the momentum for economic growth and development has been provided predominantly by strongly expending government expenditure, but this method of stimulating economic activity will not be revived in the Fifth Plan. Instead, the Fifth Plan will affirm a new phase of development in which the institutional dimension will be emphasised and where progress will be achieved as much as through private sector initiative, (stimulated by government policy actions), as through government expenditure.”<sup>66</sup>

Total government expenditure including non-civilian items was forecast to be SR 753 billion, which was 9.1% less than the actual expenditure incurred in the Fourth Plan period.<sup>67</sup> Spending in the Fifth Development Plan under the heading of ‘Total Civilian Expenditure’ was projected to be SR497.6 billion of which SR357.7 billion 71.9% was to spent on development.<sup>68</sup> This was an increase from the actual funding of SR 341.5 billion under the Fourth Development Plan.<sup>69</sup>

The structure of budget was changed in the Fifth Development Plan. There was a steady decline in government spending on economic resource development and physical infrastructure, but an increase in human resource development and improving the level of Saudi employment. The allocation to human resource development had grown steadily from 15.6% of the total budget in the second plan to 28.3% in the fourth plan, but this jumped dramatically to 35.4% of the fifth plan.<sup>70</sup> Expenditure on administration had received an increasingly higher allocation in each of the five plans. This can be explained by increases in the cost employing more Saudi nationals in order to reduce the level of unemployment especially among graduates. The government sought to solve the problem of unemployment by taking on staff, even if in some cases there was no immediate need for additional staff in the administrative services.

The oil sector was expected in the Fifth Development Plan to grow at 2.7 per cent. This target had to be disregarded as Saudi Arabia increased its oil production from 6.4



to 8.1 million barrels per day to compensate for the loss of Iraqi and Kuwaiti production in 1990. Oil export receipts climbed to \$44.8 billion in 1992 before falling back to \$42.5 billion in 1995.<sup>71</sup>

The non-oil sectors were expected to grow faster than the overall economy, at an annual rate of 3.6 percent. Importantly, government services were planned to grow at only 0.8 percent per annum while other non-oil sectors expected annual growth rate was to be 4.5 percent.<sup>72</sup> The importance of the non-oil sector was stressed in the plan for two reasons: firstly, the need to diversify from the dependence on oil and, secondly, the dominance of this sector in civilian employment.<sup>73</sup>

### **3.8. SYSTEM OF GOVERNMENT AND ADMINISTRATION IN SAUDI ARABIA**

In order to realise the scope of this study and have a full understanding about the environment of this research, it is necessary to have some knowledge of the government structures and the institutions of the public sector in Saudi Arabia.

The King of Saudi Arabia:

“is the ultimate source of the State’s judicial, executive, and regulatory (legislative) power. In accordance with the provisions of the Basic Law of government, and the Law of the Council of Ministers, the Consultative Council *majlis al-shura*, and the Provinces.”<sup>74</sup>

Furthermore:

“his duty is defined in terms of *sharia* law, as King / *imam* the King has the power to return to the Council of Ministry any draft decree or order submitted to him for signature, giving his reasons so that the council may discuss them.”<sup>75</sup>

The Council of Ministers, is headed by the King from whom it receives its power. It was formed on the 10th of October 1953,<sup>76</sup> which was only one month before the late King Abdulaziz passed away. Al-Tawail stated that: “it was considered the first basic step of establishing the central administration in the Kingdom. For the first time all government bodies in all the Kingdom were supervised by a single agency.”<sup>77</sup> The



council's functions cover state policy within the Kingdom and abroad, including conducting the financial, economic, educational and defence policies and supervising the state's public affairs. The Council headed by the King, has executive power over the whole Kingdom: its jurisdiction covers the laws, the public departments, the implementation of the development plans and the forming of committees to examine the work of the ministries and other government agencies.<sup>78</sup> The Council is composed of its President (the King), the First and Second Deputy Premier, all full government Ministers those Ministers of State who are appointed to the Council and the advisors of the King who are appointed to the Council by Royal Order:

“Members of the Council of Ministers are responsible to the prime minister, who in turn is responsible to the King. The prime minister can ask the King to relieve any member of his duties the prime ministers is responsible for the general policy of the state.”<sup>79</sup>

Due to the wide range of tasks which confront the Council of Ministers, there are a number of Higher Councils and Ministerial Committees, such as the General Committee of the Council of Ministers, the Manpower Council and the Civil Service Bureau<sup>80</sup> which are intended to ease the workload of the Council. For example by reducing the amount of time taken to consider a particular area of policy or by having executive authority or decision-making powers.

The Consultative Council *majlis al-shura* is a recent addition to the political system. It was announced by the King Fahd Ibn Abdulaziz:

“King Fahd Ibn Abdulaziz has announced in Riyadh on Sunday March 01 1992, the basic system of government, the *shura* (Consultative) Council and the provincial system of the Kingdom, describing these as formalisations of a system already well established in the country... The Consultative Council is to be based on Islam and will consist of a speaker and sixty well educated and qualified members to be selected by the King.”<sup>81</sup>

By September 1992 only the speaker of the Council, Mohammed Al-Jubar had been appointed. In July 1993 the chairman was appointed<sup>82</sup> Therefore, the King named the members of the *majlis*. The establishment was considered by the Economist Intelligence Unit as step in the right direction.<sup>83</sup> They reported that:

“The naming of the members was accompanied by a set of decrees limiting the operations of the council. The president of the *majlis*



is given considerable authority in controlling the activities of the body. Specifically, he grants members permission to speak and decides the topic of discussion... The policies on which the Council can express opinions are: economic and social development plans; laws, regulations, treaties and international agreements; and annual reports presented by ministries and other government organisation.”<sup>84</sup>

The Ministries are the backbone of the executive government, as they are the principle means of implementing state policies. The Ministry of Foreign Affairs was the first to be created, in 1930, followed by the Ministry of Finance and National Economy in 1932.<sup>85</sup>

**Table 3.4. Establishment of Ministries of Saudi Arabia**

Ministry Name	Date Established	
Ministry of Foreign Affairs	1930AD	1349AH
Ministry of Finance	1932	1351
Ministry of Defence	1944	1363
Ministry of the Interior	1951	1370
Ministry of Health	1951	1370
Ministry of Communications	1953	1372
Ministry of Education	1953	1373
Ministry of Agriculture & Water	1953	1373
Ministry of Commerce	1954	1373
Ministry of Petroleum & Minerals	1960	1380
Ministry of Labour & Social Affairs	1960	1380
Ministry of Pilgrimage	1961	1381
Ministry of Information	1962	1382
Ministry of Justice	1970	1390
Ministry of Higher Education	1975	1395
Ministry of Industry & Electricity	1975	1395
Ministry Municipal & Rural Affairs	1975	1395
Ministry of Post, Telegraph & Telephones	1975	1395
Ministry of Public Works & Housing	1975	1395
Ministry of Planning	1975	1395
Ministry of Islamic Affairs	1993	1414

Source: Al-Tawail, M.A., *Public Administration in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia*, (Riyadh: Institute of Public Administration, 1995), p.87.

All of the 21 ministries (see table 3.4) are governed by uniform laws. The Minister is regarded as the final authority and the direct supervisor of the affairs and work of the Ministry. The hierarchical structure is the same for all Ministries. Different Ministries are able to co-operate to carry out certain activities where they have overlapping



responsibilities or where more than one Ministry has an interest. Each Ministry has its own organisation and responsibility, its own budget, and reports directly to the Council of Ministers.<sup>86</sup>

There are 40 independent agencies which are similar to the Ministries in that they have independent budgets, specific responsibilities, hierarchical administration, and submit to the same uniform laws. The difference is that the individuals who head them are not part of the Council of Ministers although they have the rank of Minister. Some examples of these agencies are: the General Department of Youth Welfare; and the General Department of Girls' Education; the National Guard; and the General Civil Service Bureau.<sup>87</sup> The nature of the work carried out by these agencies is varied, covering areas as diverse as the General Civil Service Bureau, the General Presidency of Religious Guidance Groups and the Civil Aviation Agency.

Another element in the administration of the government is the state enterprises. The aim of these agencies is to avoid 'red tape' procedures and to help overcome administration problems, particularly in the early stages of development. They enjoy an independent budget, and the freedom to enact rules and regulations as they see fit to ensure the quality of the organisation and its performance. Their functions are similar to businesses in the private sector. Indeed, the bodies were set up to generate self-sustaining income. The first such enterprise the Saudi Arabian Monetary Agency (SAMA) was established in 1952, and the number has by 1995 risen to 43.<sup>88</sup> Examples of these public enterprises are Saudi Arabian Airlines (SAUDIA) and Saudi Arabian Basic Industries Corporation (SABIC). The Public Enterprises can be divided into four groups: the Economic Agencies; the Educational, Training and Consulting Agencies; the Service Agencies; and the Investment and Financial Administration Agencies.

Most of these public enterprises are linked by work relations to one or other of the Ministries, rather than by authority relations. It is the usual custom for the Minister of the 'Mother Ministry' to preside over the Board of Directors, and he is also joined on the Board by one of the Ministry's senior officials, to help guarantee co-ordination of their affairs.<sup>89</sup>



The traditional central executive power was not felt to be appropriate to these bodies, which were designed to be flexible in their decision-making processes. The public enterprises can be seen as a subtle combination of the authority of the government while using the practices of private organisations to attain effectiveness and efficiency.<sup>90</sup> This means that they should be able to manage specific tasks effectively to achieve comprehensive development for the benefit of society. These agencies can be defined as being “assigned tasks that cannot be managed like any other task by the governmental apparatus. One could argue that if it were possible to perform these tasks routinely, the need for such agencies would not exist.”<sup>91</sup> The wide range of tasks that are accomplished by these enterprises reflects the wide range of needs that exist in the Kingdom and the rapid expansion of the state and the development of the economy that has taken place.

For administrative purposes the five provinces of Saudi Arabia are divided into a total of thirteen regions (*emirates*). Each *emirate* has its own *emir* (governor) and a council which comprises of the *emir*, as its chairman, the deputy *emir* and the *emirate* deputy. Also on the council are the heads of a number of the government Ministries in the region, and a team of at least 10 appointees from the province. The *emirates* are further sub-divided into a total 104 *mohfazat*. The whole system is under the direction of the Ministry of the Interior.<sup>92</sup>

The role of local government is defined by the Provinces Act of 1992 and its subsequent amendment by the 1994 Royal Order, number 1/21A. The act defines the role of the *emir* as follows:

“the *emir* of the *emirate* reports to the Minister of the Interior; the appointment and dismissal of *emir* and his deputy are enforced by a Royal Order, at the recommendation of the Minister of Interior.”<sup>93</sup>

Among the responsibilities of the *emir* are: to run the affairs of the province according to the government’s general policies; to develop the province socially, economically and civically; to develop public services and to enhance their efficiency; to monitor and increase the level of efficiency of the work and services offered.<sup>94</sup> It is clear that local government plays a very important role in the processes of growth and development



although these policies are introduced by the central government, there has to be a level of local input in to the decision-making process.<sup>95</sup>

### **3.8.1. THE ROLE AND DUTIES OF THE STATE SECTOR IN SAUDI ARABIA**

The state sector in Saudi Arabia plays a major role in the development: it carries out the policies of the government and implements these policies. In developing countries like Saudi Arabia, the role of the public sector is particularly important due to the dominant role of the government in social and economic development. The public sector in these countries is used as a tool to help the government to exercise its responsibilities which requires the public sector to be more active than in developed countries. To have an active public sector requires a fundamental capacity, based on high quality manpower. However most developing countries suffer from a lack of qualified personnel, both to meet the demands of the development process and to replace the expatriate workers with indigenous workers. The shortage of professional and skilled workers is one of the major obstacles limiting the growth of development in Saudi Arabia.<sup>96</sup>

It is the responsibility of the Civil Service and particularly the Manpower Council to plan policies to increase the indigenous share of national employment and to establish policies to diversify and increase the skills of Saudi nationals.<sup>97</sup>

### **3.9. ASSIR REGION**

The region of Assir can be defined in two different ways: by local popular definition and by its administrative definition. For the local population, the term refers to the area inhabited by the Assiri tribe, and is restricted to the area surrounding the city of Abha: this reflects the historical roots of the name of the region. The name itself can be traced to only the last century. It was not used at the time of Niebuhr (1772) and is thought of as a town name by Burckhardt (1831).<sup>98</sup> The first use as a regional name is by the Pasha of Egypt who sent military expeditions to the region in the 1834, due to



the local prominence of the Assiri tribe. By the middle of the nineteenth century, the term was in common use among Turkish administrators and through them, in European reports on the area. In the map of Atif Pasha (1908),<sup>99</sup> “Assir comprised an area about 180 miles wide, extending 230 miles along the Red Sea coast, bounded on the north by Hijaz, on the east by Najd, and on the south by Yemen.”<sup>100</sup>

The present administrative definition comes from the Emirate of Assir, which was established following the Saudi conquest of south-western Arabia in 1921. The borders of this region have shifted several times, following the inclusion of new areas, such as Tihama area (in 1926) and Najran (in 1934). The area governed by a particular *emir* can sometimes be enlarged according to the ability and efficiency of his government, and this has occurred more than once in recent years.<sup>101</sup> The Emirate's borders are set at Najran and Jizan in the south, the Red Sea to the west, to the north by al Baha Emirate and to the west by the Rub al Khali (see map 2).

It was not until the last three decades that the area attracted academic study. The reason for this is partly due to Assir being situated between two more famous areas, the Yemen and Hijaz. Furthermore, patterns of life in the region were very traditional, with little private enterprise. However, since 1970 successive development plans, instigated by the Saudi Government, have changed the situation. It is now regarded as area of potential economic growth.

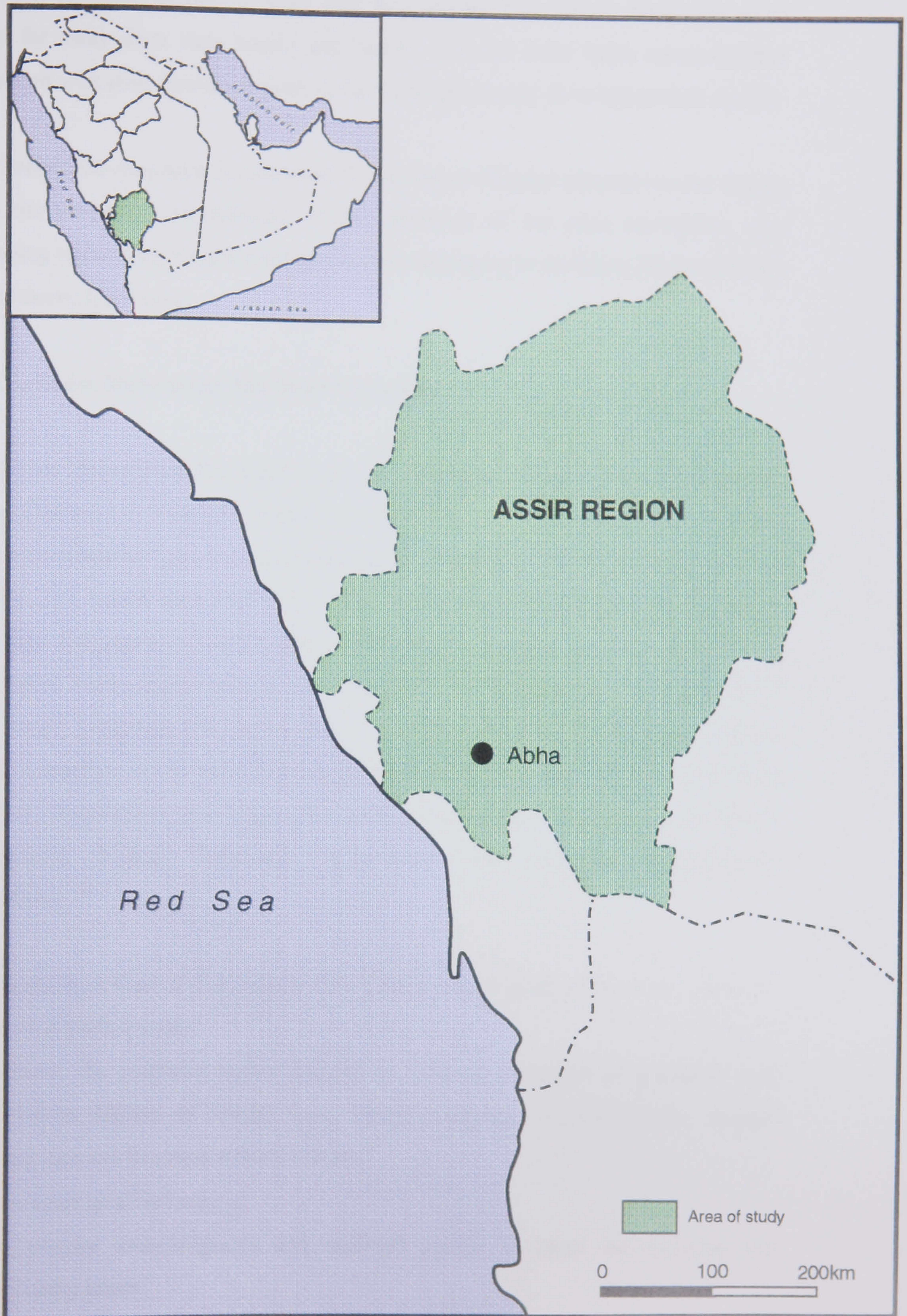
### **3.9.1 THE DEVELOPMENT OF HIGHER EDUCATION IN THE ASSIR REGION**

This section will briefly highlight the development of higher education in Assir. The introduction will form the basis for the future analysis on human resource development in Assir in particular and Saudi Arabia in general.

There was no provision for higher education in the Assir region during the First Development Plan. Students from the region used to go to other main cities (Riyadh, Jeddah and Damaam) to pursue their studies, if they were able to do so. Nevertheless,



## MAP 2 ASSIR REGION



Source: Adapted from Kingdom of Saudi Arabia Ministry of Interior, designed by Principality of Assir and King Khalid Military College, *Assir Region Atlas*, (Riyadh: National Guard Printing Press, 1985).



a number preferred to start to work after they finished high school rather than go to study far away from their homes and family. On the other hand, some students emigrated with their families in order to have the opportunity to complete their studies.

The Second Development Plan initiated the provision of higher education in the region, with the proposed establishment of two branches of the main universities, one belonging to the King Saud University, and one belonging to the Imam Mohammed Ibn Saud Islamic University.

#### **3.9.1.1. Imam Mohammed Ibn Saud University**

The Imam Mohammed Ibn Saud University (Southern branch) was established by Royal Decree no 3/J/20527 dated 26.8.1396 (1976) with the aim of providing education in Islamic Law and Arabic Language. During the Third Development Plan, in 1981, this branch was divided into two, the Islamic Law College and the Arabic Language and Social Science College. The Islamic College had (and continues to offer) three main subjects: Islamic Law; Fundamentals of Religion; and Economics.<sup>102</sup> The Arabic Language and Social Science College consisted of eight departments: Arabic Language Department; History Department; Public Administration and Social Sciences Department; Sociology Department; Psychology Department; Geography Department; English Language Department; and Business Administration Department.<sup>103</sup>

The established aims of this branch were similar to the goals of the main university branch in Riyadh, namely:

- to meet the southern region demand by offering a number of graduates with bachelors degrees in Islamic Law, Arabic Language, Social Science, English Language and Business Administration;
- to prepare qualified judges;
- To prepare knowledgeable and qualified people to carry out teaching and preaching Islam;



- to produce good researchers in the fields of jurisprudence and comparative jurisprudence in accordance with the Islamic study and have good researchers in the Quranic miracles and in the prophet's tradition;
- to publish Islamic research;
- to prepare qualified students in Islamic economics;
- to graduate administrative staff to meet the demands of development;
- to graduate qualified teachers to teach sociology and psychology subjects according to Islamic methods;
- to contribute in all fields which could help increase development and knowledge;
- to increase the awareness of Islam in the region through the Social Service programme and through the activities which are performed by the students;
- to give the students a good education based on Islamic thought, and this education should make a balance between the spiritual aspects and the physical aspects;
- to encourage excellent students to pursue their studies to obtain higher degrees.<sup>104</sup>

**Table 3.5. Total Student Enrolment in the Southern Branch of Abha University, 1976-1993**

Year	Total number of students enrolled	Students in College prior to Split	Students in College of Islamic Law	Students in College of Arabic Language and Social Science
1976-77	333	333		
1977-78	650	650		
1978-79	945	945		
1979-80	1181	1181		
1980-81	1075	1075		
1981-82	1186		810	376
1982-83	1277		836	441
1983-84	1850		1143	707
1984-85	2094		1219	875
1985-86	2487		1406	1081
1986-87	2556		1626	930
1987-88	2290		1482	808
1988-89	2643		1638	1005
1989-90	2902		1676	1226
1990-91	3071		1618	1453
1991-92	3703		1900	1803
1992-93	5724		3356	2388

Source: Imam Mohammed University, Southern Branch, *al-Dalil Al-'ihsâ'i* [Statistical Pamphlet], (Abha: Al-Janub Publisher, 1993).



Table 3.5 highlights the speed of enrolment in the Imam University, building up from 333 in 1975-76 to over 17 times that number by 1992-93. The two colleges grew at a similar rate until the last year of the table when admissions to the College of Islamic Law outpaced those to the College of Arabic Language and Social Sciences.

### **3.9.1.2. King Saud University**

This branch was established in 1976 and is attached to the King Saud University in Riyadh. This branch has two colleges, for education and for medicine; the latter was founded in 1980 and was attached to the Ministry of Higher Education until the decree issued in 1981 which attached it to the King Saud University.

The aims of these two colleges are:

- to produce qualified Saudi teachers who are going to teach at high school and intermediate levels in the southern region;
- to prepare good training programmes for teachers in these two levels;
- to prepare and concentrate on research which could help the people in the education sector to solve any problem they might face, and to work in conjunction with various other agencies;
- to have a good relationship with the other Universities in the Kingdom and in other Arab countries;
- to graduate qualified Saudi doctors.<sup>105</sup>

Table 3.6 indicates again the rapid build-up of enrolled students in the two colleges of King Saud University in Abha. However, it is also apparent, that although the number of graduates is increasing, this growth is not as rapid as that of enrolments.

The Education College is made up of the education department, the psychology department, the geography department, the physics department, the mathematics department, the curricula and the method of teaching department, the history department, the English language department, the biology department, and the chemistry department. The Medicine College contains the following departments:



paediatrics; obstetrics and gynaecology; surgery; internal diseases; family and society healthcare; medical knowledge; pathology; physiology; anatomy; clinics and biochemistry; and clinical parasitology<sup>106</sup>

**Table 3.6. Number of Enrolments and Graduations,  
King Saud University, Assir branch, 1976/77-1991/92**

Year	College of Education		College of Medicine	
	Students	Graduates	Students	Graduates
1976/77	52			
1977/78	102			
1978/79	216			
1979/80	360	33		
1980/81	415	48		
1981/82	608	58		
1982/83	912	104	12	
1983/84	986	112	26	
1984/85	1350	185	46	
1985/86	1540	237	82	
1986/87	1725	274	108	9
1987/88	1861	235	131	14
1988/89	1954	261	149	15
1989/90	1974	266	339	24
1990/91	2098	327	388	30
1991/92	2130	396	395	26

Source: King Saud University, Abha Branch, Dalil al-Khiridjin [The Graduate's Guidelines], (Riyadh: King Saud Publisher, 1995) p.9.

The colleges in Assir are not, at present, sufficient for the region as they do not meet the demands of the students due to the lack of courses offered. The students are therefore required to choose between three alternatives:

- to emigrate to another region where they would be able to find the subject they wanted to study;
- to enrol in a subject which is offered in the region, even if it is not what they desire;
- to abandon their studies and enter the labour market.<sup>107</sup>

### **3.9.2. Health Development in the Assir Region**

As health is one of the major government sectors which employs considerable numbers of non-Saudis, a brief introduction to this sector in Assir will follow.



The beginning of health care in the Assir region was in 1936, when a clinic was set up in Abha. There were few workers in this unit and it was under the supervision of Makkah headquarters, and the supply of medicine came from Makkah. By 1942, the government established a headquarters for the health service in the region, which responsibility to follow up and supervise the health sector in the whole region. In 1947 the government extended the clinic to a small hospital to treat the people in the region, the capacity of which was 15 beds. The government also established small centres in many parts of the region to give the people first aid, and between 1947 and 1950 the government sent personnel such as doctors and nurses, to treat the people of the region.

During the 1950s, the government established the Ministry of Health, and the first model hospital was set up in Abha city in 1952, with a capacity of 30 beds. A second hospital for epidemic diseases was set up in 1953: from this point on, the provisions of the health sector increased every year.<sup>108</sup> There are now 17 hospitals and 208 health care centres, all of which are well equipped and have modern facilities, but the problem lies in the manpower to run these hospitals and centres.

**Table 3.7. Doctors and Workers by Nationality and Gender in Assir, Selected Years**

Year	Saudis			Non-Saudis			Total	% Increase
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total		
1983	5		5	421	42	463	468	
1985	1	1	2	548	96	644	640	138
1987	2		2	743	122	865	867	185
1989	15	2	17	930	145	1075	1092	233
1991	15		15	1198	169	1367	1382	295
1993	49	5	54	1076	183	1259	1313	281

Source: Ministry of Health, Assir Headquarters for Health, *Sihhat Assir Arqâm wa Haqâ'iq* [Health Affairs Numbers and Facts], (Abha: Ministry of Health, 1993), p.11.

In 1982 the government set up the teaching establishment the Institute of Health for Men in Assir, in Abha city. A variety of subjects such as nursery, X-ray, anaesthesia, pharmacy, laboratory and health inspectors are taught. In 1989 they established the Institute of Health for Females, which concentrated on nursing only, to provide qualified female nurses to cope with the developments in the health sector in the



region. Finally, the Faculty of Health Science was established in Abha city in 1993, which accepts students with appropriate high school degrees or hold certificates from the Institute of Health. This faculty is for males only, and it teaches pharmacy science, nursery, X ray, dentistry, food science, etc. The period of study is three years with a fourth year of training. Despite these moves as can be seen from tables 3.7 and 3.8 the problem of non-Saudis in the labour market in the health sector, has not until 1993 been solved. The health sector in Assir is totally dependent on expatriate labour.

**Table 3.8. Nurses in Assir Hospitals and Health Centres, Selected Years**

Year	Saudis			Non-Saudis			Total	% Increase
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total		
1983	84	22	106	147	536	683	789	
1985	195	31	226	490	1055	1545	1771	224
1987	126	48	174	346	1727	2073	2247	285
1989	123	56	179	466	1997	2463	2642	335
1991	133	98	231	380	2516	2902	3133	397
1993	184	129	313	343	2029	2372	2685	340

Source: Ministry of Health, Assir Headquarters for Health, *Sihhat Assir Arqâm wa Haqâ'iq* [Health Affairs Numbers and Facts], (Abha: Ministry of Health, 1993), p.11.

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- <sup>60</sup> Ibid., p.74.



- <sup>61</sup> Ibid., p.81.
- <sup>62</sup> Ibid., p.73.
- <sup>63</sup> Ibid., pp.155-163.
- <sup>64</sup> Al-Shathly, K., "Al-Talab al-'Idjtimâ'i 'la al-Ta'lim wa Mutatalabât al-Tanmiyah fi al-Tadjudrah al-Su'ûdiyyah" [Social Demand for Education and Development Requirements with Reference to the Saudi Arabian Experiment: A Social Comparative View], Attaawun Journal, no. 38, June, 1995, p.107.
- <sup>65</sup> Kingdom of Saudi Arabia Ministry of Planning, Fifth Development Plan 1990-1995, (Riyadh: Ministry of Planning, 1990), p.47.
- <sup>66</sup> Ibid., p.46.
- <sup>67</sup> Ibid., p.94.
- <sup>68</sup> Ibid., p.97.
- <sup>69</sup> Ibid., p.100.
- <sup>70</sup> Ibid., p.100.
- <sup>71</sup> The Economist Intelligence Unit, Country Profile: Saudi Arabia, 1996-1997, EIU, 1996, p.60.
- <sup>72</sup> Kingdom of Saudi Arabia Ministry of Planning, (1990), op.cit., p.85.
- <sup>73</sup> Ibid., p.82.
- <sup>74</sup> Al-Tawail, M., op.cit., pp.71-72.
- <sup>75</sup> Assah, A., op.cit., p.126.
- <sup>76</sup> Al-Tawail, M., op.cit., p.24.
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- <sup>78</sup> Al-Muharami, S.A., "The Performance and Development of the Civil Service in Sultanate of Oman" (PhD thesis, University of Exeter, 1993), p.23.
- <sup>79</sup> Lipsky, G.A., Saudi Arabia: Its People, Its Society, Its Culture, (New Haven: Hraf Press, 1959), p.117.
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- <sup>81</sup> Saudi Information Centre in London, King Fahd: Ten Glorious Years: 1982-1992, (London: Saudi Information Centre, 1992), pp.23-24.
- <sup>82</sup> The Economist Intelligence Unit, Country Report: Saudi Arabia, 3rd quarter 1993, EIU 1993, p.7.
- <sup>83</sup> Ibid., p.1.
- <sup>84</sup> Ibid., p.8.
- <sup>85</sup> Al-Awaji, A., op.cit., p.127.
- <sup>86</sup> Al-Tawail, M., op.cit., p.87.
- <sup>87</sup> Al-Mazrou, S., "Public Administration Trends and Prospects in the Context of Development of Saudi Arabia", (PhD thesis, Claremont University, 1980), pp.255-260.
- <sup>88</sup> Al-Qahtani, S.S., "Career Choice of Saudi Arabia Male Public Sector Employees : Career Orientation and Individual Demographic Characteristic", (Ph.D. thesis, University of Pittsburgh, 1991), p.9.
- <sup>89</sup> Al-Tawail, M., op.cit., p.91.
- <sup>90</sup> Ibid, p.131.
- <sup>91</sup> Abdulrahman, U., cited in Al-Tawail, op.cit., p.132.
- <sup>92</sup> Kingdom of Saudi Arabia Ministry of Finance, Central Department of Statistics, Annual Statistical Book 1993, 29th issue, (Riyadh: Central Department of Statistics, 1993), p.16.
- <sup>93</sup> Riyadh Commerce Magazine, Special Issue, Al-Nizâm al-'Asâsi Lilhukm wa Nizâm Madjlis al-Wuzarâ' wa Nizâm Madjlis al-Shûra wa Nizâm al-Manatiq [The Basic System of the Government, the Cabinet Minister System, the Consultative System, and the Regions System], (Riyadh: Al-Ubican for Investment, 1994), p.59.
- <sup>94</sup> Al Tawail, M., op.cit., pp.183-184.
- <sup>95</sup> Ibid, p.188.
- <sup>96</sup> Bukhary, H.M., "Administrative Training for Development: A Survey Study of the Inservice Administrative Training Programmes in Saudi Arabia", (Ph.D. thesis, University of Pittsburgh, 1986), pp.1-3.
- <sup>97</sup> Al Tawail, M., op.cit., p.219.
- <sup>98</sup> Ghithan, A.J., Assir - A Historiographic Study of Social and Economic Life, (Jeddah: Dar al Belad, 1994), p.20, and in Abdulfattah, K., Mountain Farmer and Fellah in Asir, Southwest Saudi Arabia, (Bamberg: EGA, 1981), p.15.



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- <sup>99</sup> Abdulfattah, K., op.cit., p.15.
- <sup>100</sup> Lipsky, G.A., op.cit., p.23.
- <sup>101</sup> Abdulfattah, K., op.cit., p.15.
- <sup>102</sup> Imam Mohammed University, Southern Branch, al-Dalîl Al-'ihsâ'î [Statistical Pamphlet], (Abha: Al-Janub Publisher, 1993).
- <sup>103</sup> Imam Mohammed University, Southern Branch, Adhwâ' 'lâ Kuliyat al-Lughah al-'Arabiyyah wa al-Ulûm al-'Idjtimâ'iyah [Highlights of the College of Arabic and Social Sciences], (Abha: Al-Janub Publisher, 1995), p.12.
- <sup>104</sup> Ibid., pp. 10-12
- <sup>105</sup> King Saud University, Dalîl Kuliyat al-Tarbiyah fi Abha [Guidelines of Abha Education College], (Riyadh: King Saud Publisher, undated), p.13.
- <sup>106</sup> King Saud University, Abha Branch, Dalîl al-Khirîdjîn [The Graduate's Guidelines], (Riyadh: King Saud Publisher, 1995), p.8.
- <sup>107</sup> Ministry of Interior, Principality of Assir, Al-Mash al-Maydâni lil Mawâqi' wa al-Khadamât: Al-Taqrîr al-Ra'îsi [Field Survey of the Sites and Services: General Report], (Riyadh: The Ministry of Planning, 1991), p. 48.
- <sup>108</sup> Ibid, p.100.



## **CHAPTER FOUR**

### **THE DEVELOPMENT OF HIGHER EDUCATION AND MANPOWER PROGRAMMES IN SAUDI ARABIA**

#### **4.1. INTRODUCTION**

This chapter will analyse the first five Five-Year Development Plans regarding higher education, VTE, the labour market and the development of the indigenous manpower. Each plan will be analysed through figures extrapolated from the documents as well as the written text.

The aim of higher education is to develop manpower to cope with the development and national economic needs. Education planning though is different from other economic sectors, such as agriculture or industrial planning, since the investment in education takes a longer time to bring a noticeable return. Planning has to pay attention to the relationship between education and development in all its aspects, and each aspect of development needs different educational inputs. Therefore, for example, the needs of the agricultural sector for educated manpower is different from that of the industrial sector. One difference concerns matters of quantity: How many people are going to be needed with a particular skill, and what level of skills will they need?

#### **4.2. THE FIRST DEVELOPMENT PLAN (1970-1975)**

This section of the chapter will examine higher education, VTE and manpower under the First Development Plan. The study will first analyse the importance which the authorities placed on higher education by concentrating on three aspects: the planned number of students, the disciplines being studied; and the financial resources allocated. Secondly, a small section will discuss VTE. The next area of the plan to be discussed will be manpower. The emphasis in this case will be on how the numbers in the planned labour force were expected to be broken down by nationality and also by



sector. The analysis will conclude by discussing how the plan aimed to relate higher education. VTE and manpower.

#### **4.2.1. HIGHER EDUCATION**

The First Development Plan contained two specific objectives relating to education in general. These were that there should be:

“continued expansion of opportunities for education at all levels to provide the capability at each level of accepting all qualified graduates from subordinate levels who seek enrolment; and strengthening [of] educational institutions at all levels with efforts concentrated on those measures that will improve efficiency and produce excellence in the educational program.”<sup>1</sup>

Following on from these broad objectives the plan then set a number of specific objectives for each of the higher education establishments.

##### The University of Riyadh and its Enrolment

The University of Riyadh was expected to reach a total enrolment of almost 7,000 students by the final year of the plan (see table 4.1). The figures anticipated depended very heavily on the completion of the university's consolidation and relocation programme, therefore it was accepted that such figures were not particularly reliable. It was foreseen that the university would have problems in handling such a large increase in the number of students enrolled: short term solutions, such as renting temporary classrooms, were proposed, in order to prevent disruption.

The student-staff ratio was expected to be reduced from 14:1 to 10:1 by the end of the plan period, with the total academic staff increasing from 212 (with 36 Saudi nationals) to 700 (with 120 Saudi nationals). The increase in the number of Saudi nationals teaching in the university was based on the anticipated return of Saudi students who were at that time studying abroad. The most dramatic increase in student numbers was to take place in the Faculty of Medicine, which was to be an integral feature of the new campus site.<sup>2</sup>



**Table 4.1 Planned University of Riyadh Enrolment during the First Development Plan (1970-1975)**

Faculty	1969-70	1974-1975
Arts	838	1,350
Commerce	781	1,782
Sciences	422	1,140
Engineering	395	1,068
Education	185	608
Pharmacy	145	536
Agriculture	102	252
Medicine	35	262
<b>Total</b>	<b>2,903</b>	<b>6,998</b>

Source: Kingdom of Saudi Arabia Ministry of Planning, *First Development Plan 1970-1975*, (Riyadh: Ministry of Planning, 1970), p.115.

#### The College of Petroleum and Minerals and its Enrolment

The College of Petroleum and Minerals was planned to reach 1,150 students by the last year of the plan. The planned new student admissions were to be held at 200 per annum until the 1974-1975 academic year when it was expected that the annual intake could well be increased to 250 students.<sup>3</sup> The estimated distribution of total enrolment among academic disciplines according to the First Development Plan is shown in table 4.2.

**Table 4.2 Distribution of Students, College of Petroleum and Minerals**

Discipline	Percentage
Applied Engineering	50
Engineering Sciences	33
Science	17
<b>Total</b>	<b>100</b>

Source: Kingdom of Saudi Arabia Ministry of Planning, *First Development Plan 1970-1975*, (Riyadh: Ministry of Planning, 1970), p.119.

#### The College of Education in Makkah and Its Enrolment

The College of Education in Makkah planned to raise its total enrolment to 950 from 311 by the final year of the plan, of whom 150 were expected to be girls taking evening courses as external students: it was expected that by the final year of the plan the college would be graduating 150 students, including 25 girls. The plan noted the college's requirement for additional facilities, such as laboratory and instructional



equipment, and it was expected that these would be provided during the early years of the plan.<sup>4</sup> No information was provided in the plan on the college's expected enrolment in terms of each academic discipline.

#### King Abdul Aziz University and its Enrolment

King Abdul Aziz University was expecting to raise its enrolment levels from 210 to 825 students by the final year of the plan, with the intake of girls accounting for 315 of these. At the start of the plan period, the university had faculties of economics, administration, arts and human sciences. It was intended that the university would expand to include specialisation in accountancy, sociology, languages and business administration. There were plans to establish a science faculty by 1973 or 1974. It was noted in the plan that number of students would increase following the erection of 35 new classrooms and a lecture hall, and the expansion of the library.<sup>5</sup>

**Table 4.3 Planned Increase in Higher Education Enrolments in First Development Plan**

Higher Education Establishment	1970	1975	Rate of Growth
University of Riyadh	2903	6998	141.1
College of Petroleum and Minerals	486	1150	136.6
College of Education	311	950	205.5
King Abdul Aziz University	210	825	292.9
College of Arabic Language	576	2351	308.2
College of Sharia (Riyadh)	699	2100	200.5
Higher Institute of Justice	19	51	168.4
College of Sharia (Makkah)	286	799	179.4
<b>Total</b>	<b>5490</b>	<b>15224</b>	<b>177.3</b>

Sources: Adapted from Kingdom of Saudi Arabia Ministry of Planning, First Development Plan 1970-1975, (Riyadh: Ministry of Planning, 1970), tables 27 and 28, p.123.

Note: does not include figures for the Islamic University as figures were incomplete.

The total position of student enrolments expected in the plan are displayed in table 4.3. From the table it is apparent that the planners anticipated that during the five year the numbers of students enrolling in higher education would rise dramatically by 177.3%. Both the College of Sharia and the College of Education were expected to more than double their student numbers, while King Abdul Aziz University and the College of Arabic Language would increase their enrolments by approximately threefold.



**Table 4.4 Planned Student Numbers by Discipline in First Development Plan<sup>6</sup>**

Subject Area	1970		1975		Rate of Growth %
	Total	%	Total	%	
Arts and Humanities	2418	45.8	6651	45.9	175.1
Social Sciences	1699	32.2	4480	30.9	163.7
Natural Sciences	1163	22.0	3368	23.2	189.6
<b>Total</b>	<b>5280</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>14499</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>174.6</b>

Source: Adapted from Kingdom of Saudi Arabia Ministry of Planning, First Development Plan 1970-1975, (Riyadh: Ministry of Planning, 1970), pp.115, 119, 120 and 121.

Although, the planners recognised the need to produce more graduates to assist with the overall development plan, there had been no mention of matching the type of degree with the needs of development. Accordingly, as can be seen from table 4.4, there was no particular emphasis on increasing the number of natural science students. Despite the fact that the numbers of natural science students were expected to almost double, the low base point meant that their numbers would account for less than a quarter of all higher education students. Throughout the plan, those studying the social sciences were expected to retain the leading role with around 46% of students. The failure of the planners to establish at the outset the need for graduates of a certain type resulted in problems for those involved in later plans. However, the speed of the development from 1970 was totally unprecedented, resulting in many unanticipated outcomes.

**Table 4.5 Finance Allocation for the First Development Plan (Selected Figures)**

SR Millions	Recurrent	Project	Total	Percentage
Total Plan	22,913	18,382	41313.5	100.0
Total Education	6,150.2	1,227.5	7,337.7	17.8
Higher Education	799.0	374.0	1173.0	2.8

Source: Adapted from Kingdom of Saudi Arabia Ministry of Planning, First Development Plan 1970-1975, (Riyadh: Ministry of Planning, 1970), table 2, p.43 and table 30, p.129.

A further method of establishing the importance attached to higher education can be adduced by studying the spending allocated to the sector. The education budget accounted for 17.8% of the planned expenditure during the five years of the plan. Of this higher education was expected to consume 2.8% of the total budget. Educational funding can be divided into recurrent, that is operational, expenditure and project or



capital expenditure. The latter creates the framework which future students will be able to use and can therefore be considered a long term investment. The former is used for the existing students and can therefore be thought of as consumption spending. From table 4.6 it is apparent that the majority of the expected allocation was recurrent, around 68%. Of the project finance, the majority SR243m (55.4%) was to be allocated to the University of Riyadh.

**Table 4.6 Planned Finance Allocations for Higher Education, 1970-1975 (SR Millions)**

Higher Education Establishment	Recurrent	Project	Total
University of Riyadh	440.0	243.0	683.0
College of Petroleum & Minerals	192.0	71.0	263.0
College of Education	39.0	6.0	45.0
King Abdul Aziz University	15.0	0.0	15.0
Islamic University	74.0	48.0	122.0
College of Sharia	39.0	6.0	45.0
<b>Total</b>	<b>799.0</b>	<b>374.0</b>	<b>1173.0</b>

Source: Adapted from Kingdom of Saudi Arabia Ministry of Planning, First Development Plan 1970-1975, (Riyadh: Ministry of Planning, 1970), table 30, p.129.

#### 4.2.2. VOCATIONAL AND TECHNICAL EDUCATION

The plan set four targets to be achieved by this sector. Among the targets was the training of 7,000 skilled and semi-skilled labourers, increasing the number of instructors by 32 during the period of the plan and establishing six small training centres in various locations.<sup>7</sup> From these objectives it is apparent that the plans for in the First Plan were only small-scale. This fact was confirmed by the budgets allocated to VTE for the five year period which totalled SR137.2 million or less than one eighth that provided to higher education.<sup>8</sup>

#### 4.2.3. LABOUR MARKET

In the First Development Plan the authorities recognised the difficulties facing the diversification of the economy which was "based mainly on agriculture and commerce, and more recently on oil."<sup>9</sup> The difficulties mentioned in the plan included "manpower shortages [which] have at times made it difficult to proceed as rapidly [to





diversification] as possible.”<sup>10</sup> The manpower plan was produced on “the assessment of human resource requirements in light of the economic objectives adopted, likely supply-demand relationships, and the policies and measures to be taken to overcome any indicated imbalances.”<sup>11</sup>

The planners estimated that at the beginning of the plan the total demand for labour was 1,180,700, while the total supply, irrespective of nationality, was 1,165,400. Thus at the outset there was a shortage of 15,300. After assessing the demands of each sector, the planners argued that by the end of the plan the total demand would have risen to 1,546,100, an increase of 30.9%. In the meantime the supply of Saudi labour was to have increased from 993,400 to 1,192,200 or 20.0%. The shortfall in numbers was to have been made up by increasing the number of non-Saudis in the work-force from 172,000 to 353,900, a rate of growth over the five years of 105.8%.<sup>12</sup> (see table 4.7). The significance of the First Development Plan in relation to the employment of non-Saudis was the acceptance that the considerable increase in their numbers was necessary to achieve the development aims of the plan. At this stage there were no major concerns expressed about the size of the immigrant work-force

**Table 4.7 Planned Breakdown of Supply of Labour by Nationality in the First Development Plan**

Figures in '000s	1970	1975	Rate of Growth
Saudis	993.4	1,192.2	20.0
Non-Saudis	172.0	353.9	105.8
<b>Total</b>	<b>1,165.4</b>	<b>1,546.1</b>	<b>32.7</b>

Source: Adapted from Kingdom of Saudi Arabia Ministry of Planning, First Development Plan 1970-1975, (Riyadh: Ministry of Planning, 1970), figure 6, p.87.

Table 4.8 highlights the changes by employment which the planners hoped to implement during the First Development Plan. It is apparent that throughout the five years of the plan each sector was expected to achieve growth. However, although the total growth is given as 26.4%, a number of sectors were anticipated to exceed the average by around double. The sectors which were other mining, utilities, trade, and transport must therefore be deemed to be the most important in terms of labour force



growth rates for the planners. At the other end of the scale came agriculture which was expected to achieve only a 1.3% growth over the five years.

**Table 4.8 Planned Breakdown of Labour Force by Sector in First Development Plan**

Sector	1970		1975		Growth Rate %
	Thousands	%	Thousands	%	
Productive Sectors					
Agriculture	476.6	40.4	482.9	32.4	1.3
Petroleum	17.1	1.5	21.6	1.5	26.3
Other Mining	13.7	1.1	20.6	1.4	50.4
Other Manufacturing	51.8	4.4	70.3	4.7	35.7
Utilities	12.2	1.0	19.6	1.3	60.6
Construction	141.5	12.0	205.0	13.7	44.9
Service Sectors					
Trade	130.2	11.0	197.6	13.2	51.8
Transport	62.1	5.3	98.2	6.6	58.1
Services	137.5	11.6	191.9	12.9	39.6
Government*	138.0	11.7	184.5	12.4	33.7
Total	1180.7	100.0	1492.2*	100.0	26.4

Source: Adapted from Kingdom of Saudi Arabia Ministry of Planning, First Development Plan 1970-1975, (Riyadh: Ministry of Planning, 1970), tables 19 and 20, p. 81.

\* On other pages (e.g. p.85, 86 and 87) the demand is given as 1,546,100. The difference of 53,900 is due to 'replacements' a concept which is not explained.

In terms of share of the demand market for manpower, the agricultural sector, which despite a planned fall from 40.4% of the market in 1970 to 32.4% of the market in 1975, was anticipated to remain the largest employer in Saudi Arabia. The other large employers were expected to remain as construction, trade, services and government. Thus overall the objectives of the First Development Plan were to increase employment in each sector, although to reduce the relative importance of agriculture to the benefit of all other sectors with the exception of petroleum mining. In this last case employment was expected to remain at 1.5% of the demand for manpower.

Although the government sector growth (see table 4.8) was not expected to grow as fast as a number of other sectors, the planners still forecast an increase of 33.7% over the period. In terms of relative employment the government sector was anticipated to grow from 11.7% to 12.4% of overall demand. However, the absolute and relative



growth rates disguise a fall in importance of the public sector from third behind agriculture and construction to fifth with trade and services both becoming more important. These figures then reveal that although the government sector was expected to grow in relation to the other sectors it was anticipated to fall in importance. Thus from the very first plan, there was a move to attempt to emphasis the importance of the private sector.

**Table 4.9 Planned Labour Force by Public/Private Sector, First Plan ('000s)**

Sector	1970		1975		% Increase
	Total	% Share	Total	% Share	
Other sectors	1041.3	88.3	1307.7	87.6	25.6
Government	138.0	11.7	184.5	12.4	33.7
<b>Total</b>	<b>1180.7</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>1492.2</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>26.4</b>

Source: Adapted from Kingdom of Saudi Arabia Ministry of Planning, First Development Plan 1970-1975, (Riyadh: Ministry of Planning, 1970), tables 19 and 20, p.81.

#### **4.2.4. HUMAN RESOURCE DEVELOPMENT**

The First Development Plan explicitly linked manpower higher education and VTE in a number of statements. This section will analyse these statements in an effort to understand the government's understanding of the importance of the relationship. While none of the three plan objectives explicitly linked manpower and higher education or VTE, the section headed 'Policies, Programs and Projects' acknowledged that "structural changes in education and training programmes, and provision ...for the expansion of training schemes"<sup>13</sup> were necessary. Although previously, the government had achieved "record rates of growth compared with most developing countries in similar circumstances in education and training."<sup>14</sup>

The plan itself contained a section entitled 'specific policies'. In that section the planners acknowledged "the important part which the formulation and implementation of appropriate education and training policies can play in providing the qualified manpower required for continued social and economic development."<sup>15</sup> The policies were expected to improve the use of the country's human resources in four ways:

- "enabling a greater number of Saudis to fill vacant positions;



- providing an opportunity for many to take advantage of the vacancies which will arise as a result of the continued growth envisaged by the plan;
- facilitating a more widespread representation of Saudis in all occupations; and
- making it possible to replace some of the foreigners currently working in the Kingdom.”<sup>16</sup>

From this statement that it is apparent, that there was already an awareness concern about the number of non-Saudis working in Saudi Arabia, although at this stage there was no specific mention of Saudization. Indeed, the final policy was merely to assist with the replacement of some foreigners.

Although the planners had acknowledged the need to restructure education and training, the government specifically allowed the division for responsibility of different sectors of education to remain between various Ministries.<sup>17</sup> As will become apparent in later chapters, the division of responsibility is an area of weakness which remains to be addressed if education can contribute to the successful maximisation of human resources in Saudi Arabia.

#### **4.3. THE SECOND DEVELOPMENT PLAN (1975-1980)**

Similar to the analysis of the First Development Plan, this section will analyse the Second Development Plan in terms of higher education, VTE manpower and their relationship as stated in the plan. On this occasion the discussion of higher education will focus on planned enrolments at the institutions of higher education and the planned expenditures by comparing the planned rates of growth between the First and Second Development Plans. Unfortunately, due to the lack of information it is not possible to analyse the breakdown of students by discipline. VTE will be analysed through the projected budget and also the relevant output figures given in the plan. The analysis of manpower will be undertaken using three sets of figures: those for nationality; sector; and a breakdown of Saudi and non-Saudi employment by occupational group. Where possible comparison between the first two plans will be discussed. Finally, the analysis of the importance which the government assigns to the relationship between higher



education, VTE and manpower will be surveyed through the relevant statements given in the plan.

#### **4.3.1. HIGHER EDUCATION**

The importance of education in general was acknowledged in the Second Development Plan where one of the goals was to “develop human resources by education and training.”<sup>18</sup> The planners added that:

“education and training - free of charge at all levels - will continue to expand and improve in quality, with the aim of eradicating illiteracy and promoting learning, but also to teach new skills, to stimulate research and the use of production and distribution techniques, and to inculcate the spirit of honest hard work.”<sup>19</sup>

Two new elements were included in this statement which had not been acknowledged in the previous plan. Firstly, the planners accepted that it was not necessary merely to expand the numbers but also to ensure that quality of provision was increased. Secondly, the authorities recognised the need to attempt to influence social mores by inculcating the spirit of honest hard work. The plan could have been referring to the problem identified later in the research that Saudis preferred not to be employed in jobs which were seen to be time-consuming, dirty and hard work.

As with the first plan, each higher education institution was analysed separately within the plan. The analysis was based on a summary of the present position, followed by a list of objectives and policies. Thereafter a list of programs and projects were discussed, including new construction, staff-student ratios and new academic programmes. Finally the planned expenditures for each institution were proposed.

##### University of Riyadh

The University of Riyadh had effectively met its target of the First Development Plan, as it had 5,600 full time and 1,200 part time students by the academic year 1974-75.<sup>20</sup> However, to further increase the number of students from 5638 to 10496<sup>21</sup> would require a number of other areas to be addressed in order to improve the learning environment. The need for improvement was reflected in the planned expenditure for



the university, with recurrent finance totalling SR1693.8 million for the five years, compared to project expenditure of SR2590.2 million.<sup>22</sup>

Previously, new construction had been limited, and as a result the facilities that did exist were becoming crowded, with inadequate space in terms of classrooms, laboratories, library and offices. It was felt unlikely that the University would meet its target of a student-staff ratio of 1:10 by the beginning of the second plan, as the figure by 1973 had increased to 1:13. Staffing was 36% below the intentions of the First Development Plan. It was the stated intention to provide an overall average staff-student ratio of 1:9.68. However, the plan emphasised that it was expected that Saudi students at foreign universities would return and work as instructors at the university, thereby increasing Saudi representation at the professorial level to 40% by the end of the plan.<sup>23</sup>

It was intended that the University would expand through the provision of a new campus, by improving the facilities within the existing campus, by increasing Saudi participation in the staff, by increasing the size of the student body, by completing the arrangements for a College of Veterinary Medicine, and by expanding the College of Science to offer majors in astronomy and statistics. Furthermore it was envisaged that the courses at both Bachelors and Post-graduate levels offered by the College of Arts, such as archaeology and linguistics, the College of Engineering, and the College of Medicine, would all be expanded, in addition to increasing technical training and consulting activities.<sup>24</sup>

#### The King Fahd University of Petroleum and Minerals

The University of Petroleum and Minerals had met or surpassed all targets that had been set in the First Development Plan: as student enrolment had expanded to 1,497, (target: 1,150); graduates with BSc had increased to 123, with 155 expected for 1975 (target: 103); and graduate students at MSc level had increased to 54 (target: 22). The University had developed new courses beyond what had been planned, with courses available in petroleum engineering, systems engineering and industrial management. Although the university had exceeded its target for instructional staff (having 166 staff, as opposed to the target of 133) because of the increase in both student numbers and



new courses, it was still facing problems of under-staffing, which a deficit of 301 members of staff in academic year 1974-75.<sup>25</sup>

The stated intentions of the university were bold and included plans:

- to increase the size of the student body from 1,497 to 2,651 by 1980;
- to raise quality through selective enrolment procedures;
- to increase the admission of tuition paying and foreign scholarship students;
- to increase the number of Saudi students on government sponsorship from 450 in 1975 to 550 by 1980;
- to initiate a five year programme of acquisitions for the library, which would include 20,000 basic technical books per year, as well as 5,000 basic non-technical and supporting books per year;
- to establish a university press;
- to expand its own courses and its links with counterpart institutions abroad, such as the Consortium of American Universities, French Institute of Petroleum and Austrian Academy of Science;
- to establish a research institute, which would become the primary source of research and development for the petroleum industry, undertake research into atomic energy and develop research facilities in water distillation, pollution control, marine biology and oceanography;
- to increase the scope of education at post-secondary level;
- to encourage staff to undertake consultancy and data-processing work for both government and industry; and
- to sponsor lecture series and conferences.<sup>26</sup>

The plan also called for an increase in the number of Saudi professors from 21% (36 out of 180) in 1975-76 to over 37% (91 of 242) by 1979-80, with a further target of 50% by 1982-83. Furthermore, there were plans to improve the training of Saudi staff through an in-faculty training programme.<sup>27</sup>

All these objectives were to be met from the annual funding requirement of the university which was estimated to increase from SR216.0 million in 1975-76 to



SR218.3 million in 1979-80, with a total for the entire plan period of SR1,142.8 million. This sum was to be split SR704.1 million for recurrent budget and SR438.7 million for project finance.<sup>28</sup>

#### King Abdul Aziz University.

The King Abdul-Aziz University saw itself at the start of the Second Development Plan as having expanded from being a small private college in Jeddah to a comprehensive higher education institution with three colleges in Jeddah and two in Makkah, with plans for a further two colleges the following year. Student numbers had almost doubled in the course of the First Development Plan to 3,737, while the number of foreigners in the staff had resulted in less than 20% of the staff being Saudis. Meanwhile construction of new facilities had been limited, therefore the university was using portable buildings and modifications of old structures, and the facilities in the Makkah campus had reached the physical limit for expansion.<sup>29</sup> Similarly the library had yet to be developed to university standards, and it was intended to acquire more than 500,000 reference and non-technical books during the plan period.<sup>30</sup>

Among the stated objectives were the following:

- to develop highly-qualified instructional and administrative staff, with increasing Saudi representation at all levels, including in the professorial ranks from 18% to approximately 25% by the end of the plan;
- to implement a phased campus construction programme at both Jeddah and Makkah;
- to increase the size of the student body from 3,737 to 11,610, and increase its share of new student admissions to 30% of all boys' secondary schools.;
- to expand the library facilities, the College of Education and the College of Sharia;
- to establish Colleges of Medicine and Engineering;
- to develop courses in journalism, information, European languages and library sciences;
- to establish a Marine Sciences Institute with research capabilities;
- to provide short practical training courses in various subjects for the public and private sector;



- to increase participation in part time study for external students;
- to continue to encourage external consulting services by faculties and staff, and
- to initiate an annual programme of foreign scholarships for graduate studies, with a total of 650 scholarships during the total period of the plan.<sup>31</sup>

Importantly, a further objective was to increase the size of the Colleges of Education, Engineering and Science from 45.8% of total enrolments to 55.8% by 1979-80, while controlling the growth of the Colleges of Arts and Sharia through selective admissions, reducing the proportion of students in these bodies from 25.4% of the total to 16.9% by the end of the plan.<sup>32</sup> This move could be taken as an early sign of the recognition by the planners to attempt to move students into studies which were required by the manpower section of the plan.

The budget per annum for the University was expected to expand from SR223.3 million to SR858.9 million over the five years covered by the Plan. This represented a total of SR3,228.4 million, of which SR1,199.2 million was recurrent expenditure and SR2,029.2 million was project finance.<sup>33</sup>

#### Imam Mohammed Ibn Saud Islamic University

In response to the changing structure of higher education the Imam Mohammed Ibn Saud Islamic University was established in 1974. The basis of the university was the incorporation of the Colleges of *Sharia* and Arabic Language, the Higher Judicial Institute and 37 other institutions which had previously been under the Presidency of Religious Colleges and Institutes. The planned enrolments for 1974-75 are shown in table 4.10.

**Table 4.10 Imam Mohammed Ibn Saud University Enrolments, 1974-75**

College/Institute	Students
Higher Judicial Institute	96
College of Sharia	1,619
College of Arabic Language	841
<b>Total</b>	<b>2556</b>

Source: Kingdom of Saudi Arabia Ministry of Planning, Second Development Plan 1975-1980, (Riyadh: Ministry of Planning, 1975), p.347.



The intention of forming the university was to develop an institution for higher education in Islamic Studies, including *sharia*, Arabic Language, Islamic History, Islamic Science, Social Science and related subjects, and to establish a collection of Islamic documents and research materials. It was intended to increase total enrolment from 2556 students in 1974-75 to 7,037 students in 1979-80. It was also intended to construct a campus in Riyadh for the university during the early years of the plan, and build 18 new institutes during the course of the plan.<sup>34</sup>

**Table 4.11 Planned Increase in Higher Education Enrolments in Second Development Plan**

Higher Education Establishment	1975	1980	Rate of Growth	
			Last Plan	This Plan
University of Riyadh	5638	10496	141.1	86.2
King Fahd University of Petroleum and Minerals*	1497	2651	136.6	77.1
King Abdul Aziz University**	3737	11610	292.9	210.7
Islamic University	890	3987	n/a.	348.0
Imam Islamic University***	2556	7037	249.1	175.3
<b>Total</b>	<b>14318</b>	<b>35781</b>	<b>97.8</b>	<b>149.9</b>

Sources: Adapted from Kingdom of Saudi Arabia Ministry of Planning, First Development Plan 1970-1975, (Riyadh: Ministry of Planning, 1970), tables 27 and 28, p.123 and Kingdom of Saudi Arabia Ministry of Planning, Second Development Plan 1975-1980, (Riyadh: Ministry of Planning, 1975), table v-15, p.351.

\* - previously College of Petroleum and Minerals.

\*\* - includes figures for College of Sharia (Makkah) and College of Education.

\*\*\* - previously College of Arabic Language, Institute of Justice and College of Sharia (Riyadh)

From table 4.11, it is apparent that the plans for expansion during the Second Development Plan were even greater than the under the first plan. The increase during these five years was expected to be almost 150%, whereas the aims of the previous plan were an increase of almost 100%. In the earlier discussion on King Abdul Aziz university a trend of encouraging study of subjects vital to the development needs of the Kingdom had been in found. However, from the overall figures this analysis is not supported by the empirical evidence. For example, the anticipated growth of the Islamic University was a massive 348%. Similarly the new Imam Saud University aimed to increase numbers by more than the average, 175.3% compared with 149.9%. The lowest expected increase was at the College of Petroleum and Minerals, with an expected growth of 77.1%.



In terms of expenditure, the total planned spending during the Second Development Plan was forecast to be SR12190 million. This was more than ten times the planned expenditure of the First Development Plan. The importance of constructing additional facilities can be seen from the figures highlighted in table 4.12, where project spending was forecast to be SR6705.8 million, almost six times the total higher education budget of the first plan. Recurrent expenditure was also expected to grow considerably, again a reflection of the increased number of students.

**Table 4.12 Finance Allocations for Higher Education, 1975-1980 (SR Millions)**

Higher Education Establishment	Recurrent	Project	Total This Plan	Total Last Plan
University of Riyadh	1693.8	2590.2	4284.0	683.0
K.F.U.* of Petroleum & Minerals	704.1	438.7	1142.8	263.0
King Abdul Aziz University**	1199.2	2029.2	3228.4	15.0
Islamic University	388.9	560.7	949.6	122.0
Imam Islamic University***	1498.2	1087.0	2585.2	45.0
<b>Total</b>	<b>5484.2</b>	<b>6705.8</b>	<b>12190.0</b>	<b>1128.0</b>

Source: Adapted from Kingdom of Saudi Arabia Ministry of Planning, First Development Plan 1970-1975, (Riyadh: Ministry of Planning, 1970), table 30, p.129 and Kingdom of Saudi Arabia Ministry of Planning, Second Development Plan 1975-1980, (Riyadh: Ministry of Planning, 1975), pp.319, 327, 324, 346, and 348.

\* - K.F.U. King Fahd University

\*\* - includes figures for College of Sharia (Makkah) and College of Education.

\*\*\* - previously College of Arabic Language, Institute of Justice and College of Sharia (Riyadh)

### 4.3.2. VOCATIONAL AND TECHNICAL EDUCATION

As was acknowledged in the Second Development Plan, there was “no formal provision for the development of middle-level manpower to support industry and commerce.”<sup>35</sup> Following a study by the World Bank recommendations were proposed to develop this sector of education. Thus plans were presented to develop a polytechnic system in the Eastern, Western and Central regions.

The objectives of the plan were:

- to determine the location of the first polytechnic institutions;
- to identify the agencies responsible for establishing and operating the institutes;
- to develop a plan for establishment of the polytechnics; and



- to provide the necessary finance.<sup>36</sup>

The plan offered no details as to the expected numbers of students, the expected time-scale of the development of the program, nor the allocated budget.

Training during the Second Development Plan was expected to increase dramatically. In the plan, the output was divided into four sectors: industrial induction; craft; upgrading; and on-the-job. Industrial induction which included the construction and metalworking sectors was planned to process 17,000 skilled and semi-skilled workers in day and evening courses lasting one year. The craft element comprised full time courses of one year for 28,000 workers in construction, metalworking, electrical, automotive, woodworking, and 'others'. 3100 workers were to be retrained to give them higher skills. Finally, on-the-job training was expected to reach at least 5% or 35,000 skilled and semi-skilled workers during the five years. The budget was anticipated to increase from SR137.2 million in the first plan to SR2,329.7 million in the second plan. Of this sum SR1375.7 million was allocated for recurrent expenditure and SR954 million for project finance.<sup>37</sup>

The increase in throughput and in budget indicated that the planners were taking VTE more seriously. However, the budget was still dwarfed by that allocated to higher education, although the differential had reduced from 8.8:1 to 5.23:1.

### **4.3.3. LABOUR MARKET**

The four manpower objectives of the plan can be summarised as:

- raising the labour productivity, while giving priority to placing Saudis into managerial and technical positions;
- increasing the overall participation of Saudis in the work-force;
- supplementing the labour force where necessary with non-Saudis; and
- establishing the necessary institutional arrangements to achieve the previous objectives.<sup>38</sup>



Under the first plan the work-force had grown at an annual rate of 6.6%, and expected to accelerate to 8.9% per annum, under the second plan. The private sector growth was anticipated to be 7.9% per annum, with the public sector growing at a massive 15.9% per annum.<sup>39</sup> In actual numbers the planners expected the work-force to grow from 1.6 million in 1975 to 2.33 million by 1980. (see table 4.13).

**Table 4.13 Planned Breakdown of Labour Force by Nationality in The Second Development Plan**

Nationality	1975	1980	Rate of Growth	
	'000s	'000s	Last Plan	This Plan
Saudis	1286.0	1518.0	20.0	18.0
Non-Saudis	314.0	812.6	105.8	158.8
<b>Total</b>	<b>1600.0</b>	<b>2330.6</b>	<b>32.7</b>	<b>45.7</b>

Source: Adapted from Kingdom of Saudi Arabia Ministry of Planning, Second Development Plan 1975-1980, (Riyadh: Ministry of Planning, 1975), tables v-1 and v-2, p.217.

From table 4.13, it is apparent that the planned growth of Saudis in the work-force was actually reducing from 20% under the first plan to 18% for 1975-80. On the other hand, the non-Saudi workers were expected to grow even faster (158.8%) than the 105.8% anticipated in the First Development Plan. Thus by the end of the second plan the ratio of Saudis to non-Saudis in the work-force was expected to have fallen from 4.1:1 to 1.9:1, i.e. under two-thirds.

Although the plan did not produce figures for the relationship between employment sector and nationality, there were totals for breakdown of nationality by occupational group. The figures are reproduced in table 4.14. As can be seen the non-Saudis were expected to increase faster in every occupational group with the exception of unskilled, farmers and, unsurprisingly, Bedouin. However, given the findings of the study the fact that no non-Saudis were to employed as unskilled is surprising.

Although one of the four objectives was to give priority to Saudi employment in the managerial occupation, the differential increases meant that Saudis from making up more than 54% of this group in 1975, would by 1980 comprise only 41.2%. Similarly, a fall, from 44.4% to 27.9%, was to be expected in the share of the technical occupational group, despite the promotion of Saudis as technicians being another



objective of the plan. In fact by the end of the plan non-Saudis were expected to form over 50% of managers, technicians, clerical workers, sales workers, service workers, and skilled workers. In each case except technicians, Saudis had at the start of the plan comprised over 50% of the group. Only in the fields of professionals, operatives, semi-skilled, unskilled and farmers were the natives expected to maintain a majority. These figures should have been starting to worry the planners.

**Table 4.14 Planned Breakdown of Labour Force by Nationality and Occupational Group in the Second Development Plan**

Occupational Group	Saudis			Non-Saudis		
	1975	1980	Increase %	1975	1980	Increase %
Managers, Officials	7.4	8.7	17.6	6.3	12.4	96.8
Professionals	48.4	52.9	9.3	15.7	23.4	49.7
Technicians & sub-professional	25.0	33.4	33.6	31.4	81.3	158.9
Clerical workers	67.5	99.6	47.6	31.4	121.8	287.9
Sales workers	82.3	97.2	18.1	47.1	112.6	139.1
Service workers	105.2	134.5	27.9	47.1	145.2	208.3
Operatives	40.0	57.1	42.7	25.1	51.4	104.8
Skilled workers	70.1	93.5	33.4	47.1	101.9	116.3
Semi-skilled workers	170.0	265.0	55.9	62.8	162.5	158.8
Unskilled workers	244.0	296.4	21.5	0.0	0.0	0.0
Farmers	311.2	281.0	-9.7	0.0	0.0	0.0
Bedouin	114.9	98.7	-14.1	0.0	0.0	0.0
<b>Total</b>	<b>1286.0</b>	<b>1518.0</b>	<b>18.0</b>	<b>314.0</b>	<b>812.6</b>	<b>158.8</b>

Source: Adapted from Kingdom of Saudi Arabia Ministry of Planning, Second Development Plan 1975-1980, (Riyadh: Ministry of Planning, 1975), tables v-1 and v-2, p.217.

The final set of figures for manpower in the Second Development Plan to be discussed are displayed in table 4.15. For an unexplained reason the planned figures at the start of the plan differ from those given in other areas of the plan by 77,900 (see for example tables 4.13 and 4.14). However, despite this difference, the attempts by the planners to switch the emphasis on manpower demand from agriculture to more modern sectors of the economy is apparent. While in the first plan the planned growth rate had been minimal at 1.3%, in the second plan the employment level was expected to fall by 7.3%. Other sectors which were to receive less relative emphasis in the second plan were petroleum and, only marginally, transport. Greater emphasis was to be placed on other manufacturing, construction, trade, services and government.



The government sector, in fact, was aimed to increase by over 108%, with employment rising from 168,800 to 352,700. In terms of share of the labour market, this sector was expected to grow from 11.1% to 15.1%, overtaking the service sector. Other structural changes in the second plan were construction overtaking agriculture as the most important sector for employment and the fall of petroleum employment from 1.4% to 1.1%, as the authorities attempted to reduce dependence on agriculture and petroleum. The former in terms of employment and the later in terms of revenue earning capacity.

**Table 4.15 Planned Breakdown of Labour Force by Sector in Second Development Plan**

Sector	1975		1980		Growth Rate	
	'000s	%	'000s	%	Last Plan	This Plan
<b>Producing Sectors</b>						
Agriculture	426.1	28.0	395.1	16.9	1.3	-7.3
Petroleum	21.3	1.4	24.7	1.1	26.3	16.0
Other Mining	26.4	1.7	39.7	1.7	50.4	50.4
Other Manufacturing	44.4	2.9	75.2	3.3	35.7	69.4
Utilities	18.3	1.2	29.5	1.3	60.6	61.2
Construction	314.2	20.6	591.9	25.4	44.9	88.4
<b>Service Sectors</b>						
Trade	211.0	13.9	361.4	15.5	51.8	71.3
Transport	103.2	6.8	162.5	7.0	58.1	57.5
Services	188.4	12.4	297.9	12.8	12.9	58.1
Government*	168.8	11.1	352.7	15.1	26.4	108.9
<b>Total</b>	<b>1522.1</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>2330.6</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>26.4</b>	<b>53.1</b>

Source: Adapted from Kingdom of Saudi Arabia Ministry of Planning, *First Development Plan 1970-1975*, (Riyadh: Ministry of Planning, 1970), tables 19 and 20, p.81 and Kingdom of Saudi Arabia Ministry of Planning, *Second Development Plan 1975-1980*, (Riyadh: Ministry of Planning, 1975), table III-2, p.68.

#### 4.3.4. HUMAN RESOURCE DEVELOPMENT

One of the seven "fundamental values and principles which guide Saudi Arabia's development"<sup>40</sup> was the goal to "develop human resources by education [and] training."<sup>41</sup> However, the authorities admitted that "although greatly expanded in the past few years, training and educational programs are insufficient both qualitatively and



quantitatively to produce graduates capable of productive work in either the private or the public sectors without further training.’<sup>42</sup>

To overcome this and other problems two policies were proposed in the plan. The first was “through the educational and training programs, [to] prepare the new Saudi labour force entrants for occupations requiring higher productivity; through intensive in-service training programs within the private and public sectors, upgrade the existing Saudi labour force.”<sup>43</sup> The second was to “increase the labour force participation rates by creating better educational and training opportunities for all citizens of the Kingdom.”<sup>44</sup>

As with the first plan, there was little concrete planning to marry the output of higher education with the forecast demand for manpower, especially in the sectors which were already becoming totally dependent on non-Saudi employment. In general the concerns expressed in the plan seemed to indicate a worry about the present lack of training for the existing employees rather than being concerned with the future supply of manpower.

#### **4.4. THE THIRD DEVELOPMENT PLAN (1980-1985)**

This section reviews the Third Development Plan in respect of the development of manpower, of higher education, of VTE and their relationship. The first section analyses education through statements contained in the plan and through figures extrapolated from the plan concerning the planned increases in enrolment levels, the areas of study of the students and finally the planned expenditure on higher education. The second area of discussion is VTE which is analysed through its proposed budget and projected output. In the next section the discussion focuses on manpower through figures and statements drawn from the plan. The data in this case concern the expected changes in the breakdown of the labour force by nationality and sector. The final section highlights the linkage in the plan between higher education, VTE and manpower.



#### 4.4.1. HIGHER EDUCATION

During the Second Development Plan, increasing numbers of students had been channelled into the higher education system motivated by social demand, but the growth in supply of graduates still lagged behind demand. The universities had seen a large growth in capacity and productivity during the Second Development Plan, as total undergraduate enrolments had increased from 18,966 in 1974-75 to 36,112 in 1979-80 the latest year for which data was available at the time.<sup>45</sup> However, the plan recognised that due to the low levels of productivity and efficiency in the higher education system, the desired impact on the quality of education and on student performance had not been achieved. As part of the result of these problems, the universities still relied heavily on non-Saudi workers to fill key posts, with only 15% of senior faculty members were Saudi nationals, a figure which had not changed during the Second Plan.<sup>46</sup>

The Third Development Plan recognised that although there had been great successes in developing the education system within the Kingdom, progress had been challenged by increasing demand, physical problems in expanding the available facilities and regional imbalances. The plan also recognised that there were problems in the location of facilities, their delivery and equipment and in their maintenance: (“designs are often costly and ill-adapted to educational purposes.”<sup>47</sup>) Furthermore, the plan recognised the need for a more effective implementation policy in order to improve the physical and qualitative expansion of the education system.

Thus, the four objectives of the education sector as stated in the Third Development Plan were as follows:

1. “to improve the quality of education and training;
2. to make the education and training system more responsive to the needs of the economy;
3. to increase the efficiency via improved administration and management; and
4. to facilitate balanced quantitative growth of the system.”<sup>48</sup>

The plans emphasised the relevance of these objectives to higher education. In the first case:



“the goal will be to focus on qualitative improvements in admissions and in assignments of students, instruction, research, better recruitment and staff development... and in general improvements in the monitoring and evaluation of performance of the sub-sector as a whole. Other important improvements relate to improved university master planning and campus designs which take into account the educational specifications of individual programs, and to the establishment of a national library and information system.”<sup>49</sup>

The second objective will be discussed in the final section dealing with the Third Development Plan, as it relates to manpower and higher education. The third objective of improving the efficiency of the system noted that “the Supreme University Council will oversee two main developments”<sup>50</sup> which were:

“developing its capability in institutional and system planning, implementation ...and information systems....The second comprises the actions at the level of individual institutions (student record system; better campus planning; improved faculty recruitment and student throughput; and reduced drop-out and repetition rates, as appropriate).”<sup>51</sup>

In order to implement the fourth objective an Educational Development Centre and Regional Institutes of Education were to be created to enhance the capacity for research and development.

The specific objectives for each higher educational institution were less clearly defined in the Third Development Plan, than had been the case in the previous two plans. A brief overview of the main points for each institution is given below.

#### University of Riyadh

Riyadh University was expected to continue its expansion in quality and quantity during the Third Development Plan. A total enrolment of 17,000 was projected by the end of the plan period, including the new College of Education at Abha, in Assir. There was to be a special emphasis placed on fields crucial to national development, principally engineering, science and administration.<sup>52</sup>



### King Abdul Aziz University

King Abdul Aziz University was similarly planned to improve both qualitatively and quantitatively. A total enrolment of 21,000 (15,000 male and 6,000 female) was projected for the three campuses at Jeddah, Makkah and Medina. New capital projects during the third plan for the university included academic buildings, a teaching hospital, and improvements to the housing and campus infrastructure, of which improvements to the medical school and housing were given the greatest priority.<sup>53</sup>

### King Faisal University

King Faisal University was expected to expand by adding faculties of education, administrative science, humanities and applied sciences. Furthermore the faculty of medicine was to be expanded to include dentistry, nursing and a school for medical assistants. The total enrolment for the University at the end of the plan period was projected as 5,000. The capital plans for the University included developments in academic buildings, infrastructure and housing at both its campuses as well as a teaching hospital in Dammam.<sup>54</sup>

### The King Fahd University of Petroleum and Minerals

The University of Petroleum and Minerals was planned to expand its enrolment from both within the Kingdom and from abroad. A total enrolment of 4,000 was anticipated for the end of the plan period. The university anticipated that it would expand the activities of its Research Institute in research in petroleum and gas technology, minerals, water and environment, meteorology, energy, economics and industrial management. In order to improve its provision of technical manpower and expand its activities in research and public service, the physical development of academic buildings, research facilities, housing and campus services were to be concentrated on.<sup>55</sup>

Turning to the overall numbers for higher education the increase during the Third Development Plan was expected to be 72.8%. While this figure represents considerable growth, it is less than half the planned increase in the second plan. By the end of the plan, King Abdul Aziz University was forecast to have overtaken the University of Riyadh as the largest higher education institution.



**Table 4.16 Planned Increase in Higher Education Enrolments in the Third Development Plan**

Higher Education Establishment	1979	1984	Rate of Growth	
			Last Plan	This Plan
University of Riyadh	12857	17000	86.2	32.2
K.F.U. of Petroleum and Minerals	2540	4000	77.1	57.5
King Abdul Aziz University	11517	21000	210.7	82.3
King Faisal University	872	5000	n/a	473.4
Islamic University	1916	4000	348.0	108.8
Imam Islamic University	4445	8000	175.3	80.0
<b>Total</b>	<b>34147</b>	<b>59000</b>	<b>149.9</b>	<b>72.8</b>

Sources: Adapted from Kingdom of Saudi Arabia Ministry of Planning, Second Development Plan 1975-1980, (Riyadh: Ministry of Planning, 1975), table v-15, p.351 and Kingdom of Saudi Arabia Ministry of Planning, Third Development Plan 1980-1985, (Riyadh: Ministry of Planning, 1980), table 5-16 p.315 and pp.320, 321, 322, 323 and 324.

From the figures highlighted in table 4.16 it is apparent, that the highest growth was planned for the new King Faisal University. Excluding this anomaly, as with the previous plans, the fastest growth rates were planned for the Islamic universities. This fact would seem to be at odds with statements in the plan which argued for “a special emphasis on the expansion of fields crucial to national development, principally engineering, science and administration.”<sup>56</sup>

**Table 4.17 Planned Students by Discipline in 1985**

Academic Discipline	Number	% of Total
Humanities and Arts	20,600	34.9
Social Sciences	17,900	30.3
Natural Sciences	20,500	34.7
<b>Total</b>	<b>59,000</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Source: Adapted from Kingdom of Saudi Arabia Ministry of Planning, Third Development Plan 1980-1985, (Riyadh: Ministry of Planning, 1980), pp.320-324.

Unlike the Second Plan, in the Third Development Plan it was possible to distil a breakdown of students by academic discipline. The results are shown in table 4.17. Natural sciences, which this study assumes to be vital for development, accounted for just over one-third of planned students, which meant that almost two in three students were studying subjects not fully suited to the needs of the plan. However, the figures represent a considerable improvement when compared with the planned position at the



end of the First Development Plan, where the natural sciences were to account for only 23.2% of students. (see table 4.4).

**Table 4.18 Finance Allocations for Higher Education,  
Second and Third Development Plans (SR Millions)**

Years	1975-80	1980-85	Rate of Growth %
Recurrent	5484.2	20467.7	273.2
Project	6705.8	25164.5	275.3
<b>Total</b>	<b>12190.0</b>	<b>45632.2</b>	<b>274.3</b>

Source: Adapted from Kingdom of Saudi Arabia Ministry of Planning, Second Development Plan 1975-1980, (Riyadh: Ministry of Planning, 1975), pp.319, 327, 324, 346, and 348 and Kingdom of Saudi Arabia Ministry of Planning, Third Development Plan 1980-1985, (Riyadh: Ministry of Planning, 1980), table 5-25, p. 340.

How did the plan envisage expenditure for higher education? As can be seen from table 4.18, the overall increase in finance allocations was expected to increase by 274.3%. The increase was against the projected rise in student numbers of only 73%. A similar situation had been anticipated in the second plan, with planned expenditure increasing by almost 1000% and student numbers rising by only 150%. The breakdown between recurrent and project finance indicated that each was expected to increase by around 275%.

#### **4.4.2. VOCATIONAL AND TECHNICAL EDUCATION**

The creation of a new post-secondary polytechnic institute of 1,100, ten new vocational centres, a new instructor training centre were among the projects planned for VTE during the Third Development Plan. These projects were to be funded from the budget of SR5851.9 million which had been allocated to VTE. This sum represented an increase of 151.2% on the previous budget. From table 4.19 it is apparent that while recurrent finance was due to increase only by a comparatively small amount, project finance was to increase dramatically by 329.7%. Once again, though VTE was a poor relation to higher education which gained both a far larger budget and a larger increase to that budget.



**Table 4.19 VTE Budget Comparison, Second and Third Plans.**

Years	1975-80 SR million	1980-85 SR million	Rate of Growth %
Recurrent	1375.7	1753.0	27.4
Project	954.0	4098.9	329.7
<b>Total</b>	<b>2329.7</b>	<b>5851.9</b>	<b>151.2</b>

Source: Adapted from Kingdom of Saudi Arabia Ministry of Planning, Second Development Plan 1975-1980, (Riyadh: Ministry of Planning, 1975), p.242 and Kingdom of Saudi Arabia Ministry of Planning, Third Development Plan 1980-1985, (Riyadh: Ministry of Planning, 1980), table 5-25, p.340.

Although comparison of output between the second and third plans is impossible due to the different styles of report, from the figures for the third plan highlighted in table 4.20, it is apparent that output was expected to be significant, with relatively high levels of graduates compared to enrolment.

**Table 4.20 Vocational Training in the Third Development Plan**

Type of Training	New Capacity	Total Enrolments	Graduates
Pre-vocational	980	3892	2722
Vocational	4130	19964	13975
Instructor Training	70	830	830
Mobile Centres	240	1932	1352
Industrial Instruction	4880	30184	21128
On-the-job Training	300	1235	1235
Workers	0	15500	n/a.
<b>Total</b>	<b>10600</b>	<b>73537</b>	<b>41242</b>

Source: Kingdom of Saudi Arabia Ministry of Planning, Third Development Plan 1980-1985, (Riyadh: Ministry of Planning, 1980), table 5-21, p.325.

#### 4.4.3. LABOUR MARKET

According to the plan:

“the projected increase in the size of the civilian labour force over the Third Plan period is 155,000, representing an annual growth rate of 1.2%. Numerically, this increase corresponds to the difference between new civilian employment opportunities (310,000) and the estimated number of people leaving agriculture (70,000) and construction (85,000). Because of the limitations on the growth of expatriate workers, the non-Saudi segment of the labour force will only increase by 9,000 qualified personnel. This, too, is a net balance comprising 74,000 for new jobs and 65,000 leaving the Kingdom mainly on account of redundancies in



construction. At the same time the net increase in the indigenous work force for civilian employment will be 146,000.”<sup>57</sup>

The importance of manpower to the plan was emphasised with the statement that “manpower development has the highest national priority, since the effective utilisation of available manpower is the key element in the whole strategy for the Third Plan.”<sup>58</sup>

Four particular objectives were given, namely:

- “to increase the total numbers of available manpower;
- to increase the productivity of manpower in all sectors;
- to deploy manpower to those sectors with the greatest potential for growth and highest productivity levels; and
- to reduce dependence on foreign manpower.”<sup>59</sup>

The explicit acknowledgement of the extent of non-Saudis in the work-force was a major step for the development planners. While “the strategies of the First and Second Development Plans emphasised high growth rates in all sectors, and as a corollary, the relatively free import of foreign labour”<sup>60</sup> one of the three key strategies of the third plan was to “emphasise growth more selectively, and aims to consolidate rather than expand the foreign labour force.”<sup>61</sup> The Saudization aspect was further emphasised in the medium term objectives when in the section on economic and administrative efficiency the need to adopt “incisive manpower development policies with the objective of replacing foreign manpower to the maximum possible extent.”<sup>62</sup>

As can be seen from table 4.21, the increase in non-Saudis over the five years of the plan was to be only 0.9%. A dramatic drop from the previous plan when the increase had been forecast at almost 160%. The growth of Saudis in the work-force was to be a modest 10.3%. The planners anticipated that “the proportion of Saudi males (12 years and above) participating was expected to decline slightly, from 65.3% to 64.1% over the period of the Third Development Plan.”<sup>63</sup> This decrease was explained as being a direct result of the expansion of the education and training programmes, since this reduced the involvement of those aged 12-19 in the national labour force. The authorities expected that a rise in the number of Saudi women workers from 103,000 to 120,000,<sup>64</sup> would account for the anticipated growth of Saudis in the work-force.



**Table 4.21 Planned Breakdown of Labour Force  
by Nationality in the Third Development Plan**

Nationality	1980	1985	Rate of Growth	
	'000s	'000s	Last Plan	This Plan
Saudis	1411.4	1557.4	18.0	10.3
Non-Saudis	1059.8	1068.8	158.8	0.9
<b>Total</b>	<b>2471.2</b>	<b>2626.2</b>	<b>45.7</b>	<b>6.3</b>

Source: Adapted from Kingdom of Saudi Arabia Ministry of Planning, Third Development Plan 1980-1985, (Riyadh: Ministry of Planning, 1980), table 3-7, p.98.

**Table 4.22 Planned Breakdown of Labour Force  
by Sector in the Third Development Plan**

Sector	1980		1985		Growth Rate	
	'000s	%	'000s	%	Last Plan	This Plan
<b>Producing Sectors</b>						
Agriculture	598.8	24.2	528.8	20.1	-7.3	-11.7
Petroleum	36.0	1.4	46.0	1.8	16.0	27.8
Other Mining	7.3	0.3	9.8	0.4	50.4	34.2
Other Manufacturing	104.2	4.2	164.2	6.3	69.4	57.6
Utilities	31.5	1.3	47.0	1.8	61.2	49.2
Construction	330.1	13.4	245.1	9.3	88.4	-25.7
<b>Service Sectors</b>						
Trade	310.6	12.6	339.6	12.9	71.3	9.3
Transport	214.6	8.7	274.6	10.5	57.5	28.0
Services	517.1	20.9	550.1	20.9	58.1	6.4
Government*	321.0	13.0	421.0	16.0	108.9	31.2
<b>Total</b>	<b>2471.2</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>2626.2</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>53.1</b>	<b>6.3</b>

Source: Adapted from Kingdom of Saudi Arabia Ministry of Planning, Second Development Plan 1975-1980, (Riyadh: Ministry of Planning, 1975), table III-2, p.68 and Kingdom of Saudi Arabia Ministry of Planning, Third Development Plan 1980-1985, (Riyadh: Ministry of Planning, 1980), table 3.9, p.100.

\* - excludes non-civilian employment but includes an estimated 49,600 daily wage workers.

The slow overall growth of the labour force of 6.3%, compared to 45.7% in the previous plan, reflected the planners desire to change the emphasise from growth at any cost to growth through structural adjustment of different sectors. Thus the planners sought to divert a major proportion of the manpower into productive sectors, such as, industry and mining.<sup>65</sup>

The breakdown of 6.3% increase in the labour force by sectors is highlighted in table 4.22. When compared to the Second Development Plan, it is apparent that a



considerable restructuring was anticipated. While construction had previously had the second largest growth rate, on this occasion it was to contract by over 25%. Petroleum employment was expected to grow faster than in the second plan. This growth was against the trend where all other sectors showed a drop in rates compared to the previous plan. However, there were differences within these drops in growth rate. The productive sectors of other mining, other manufacturing and utilities were expected to display a smaller fall, than those in the service sectors, in particular trade and services which were to grow just above the average. The sectors which were to grow by greater than average were petroleum, other mining, transport, government, other manufacturing and utilities. The latter two were expected to show the largest growth in demands for labour, at 57.6% and 49.2% respectively. Agriculture and construction were both expected to decline in terms of employment.

The planned changes reflected to a degree the desire of the authorities to divert manpower into more productive sectors, although the growth of both services and the government sector did not fall in line with the statements produced in the plan. When an analysis is made of the relative importance of each sector in relation to employment, a number of changes from the previous plan are apparent. Agriculture was no longer expected to be the main employer, having been overtaken by services. Furthermore, government was now planned to be the third largest employer. Construction, in line with the statements quoted earlier was to fall from third to sixth largest employer.

#### **4.4.4. HUMAN RESOURCE DEVELOPMENT**

Although, the development of manpower resources and the reduction on the dependency of non-Saudis in the labour force had become priorities in the Third Development Plan, there was still no explicit linking of higher education to these two requirements in the three medium term objectives of the plan. However, one of the four objectives of human resource development was “to make the education and training system more responsive to the needs of the economy.”<sup>66</sup> This objective was to be achieved by a number of sub-objectives including:



- the introduction of more relevant general education programs, to be developed by the Education Development Centre;
- the establishment of the Inter-Ministerial Committee on Manpower;
- the establishment of a Technical Secretariat within the Ministry of Higher Education to supervise the development of post-secondary education; and
- the creation of a critical skills inventory to ensure that programs are responsive to employers' needs.<sup>67</sup>

The establishment of the Inter-Ministerial Committee on Manpower was planned to lead eventually to a powerful regulatory body which was to “improve the co-ordination and internal and external efficiency of manpower development programs in both the private and public sectors.”<sup>68</sup> However, as will become apparent in later chapters, the problem of the creation of different supervisory bodies, under different ministries, tends to result in each body pulling in a different direction, with the outcome being uncoordinated and inefficient.

To attain the objectives and sub-objectives discussed above, a number of policies were proposed. Among the policies to be established was the requirement to “ensure that in higher education appropriate numbers of secondary school graduates enter such priority degree programs as science, medicine, engineering, agriculture, etc.”<sup>69</sup> A second policy was to “make every effort in technical and vocational education to ensure the participation of major employers with regard to determining priority programs in setting up appropriate standards of certification.”<sup>70</sup> Although, the policies quoted have noble objectives, the fact that they are expressed in vague terms without specific targets, reduce their effectiveness. It is difficult to establish whether a policy has been successful if there is no method by which to measure the output.

In addition to the above general policy statements, the planners called for new policies to be adopted to assist with manpower development. Among the educational policies sought was the:

“streaming of students [beyond the intermediate level] so that appropriate proportions of the total student body continue in formal education or are guided towards specialised technical



training institutes, in accordance with national needs.... Grants for university students will be limited to students who maintain a good level of proficiency, and who are specialising in subjects which are considered to require extra incentive.”<sup>71</sup>

The implementation of these two policies should in practical terms, be easier to adopt, as it would be possible to set targets and guidelines to ensure that they were complied with.

#### **4.5. THE FOURTH DEVELOPMENT PLAN (1985-1990)**

This section reviews how the relationship between manpower, higher education and VTE was perceived by the authorities in the Fourth Development Plan. As with the previous plans, the analysis will be based on statements and figures extrapolated from the plan. The first section will discuss higher education through three sets of figures, planned enrolments, planned expenditure and the number of students by discipline. Next VTE will be studied through its budget and planned output. The third section analyses the manpower section of the plan, by reviewing the figures for each sector of the economy and by nationality. The final section reviews the statements in the plan which specifically relate manpower, higher education and VTE.

##### **4.5.1. HIGHER EDUCATION**

During the Third Development Plan actual student enrolments had outpaced planned numbers significantly, with 77,661 students enrolled in year 1983-84 compared to an estimate of 69,000 by 1984-85 (excluding girls colleges, which are not being considered in this study, the figures are 66,237 and 59,000, respectively).<sup>72</sup> This increase along with the rapid growth since 1970 had left a number of problems for the higher education sector. The aspects which related to both general and higher education were identified in the Fourth Development Plan as:

- “low operational efficiency, following from high rates of both repetition and dropout;
- questionable effectiveness, as evidenced by output that is not in full harmony with national manpower needs; and
- staffing patterns that are generous and continue to be heavily dependent on non-Saudi personnel.”<sup>73</sup>



The deficiencies which were identified of specific concern to higher education were

“the high rates of dropout, the protracted number of years required for the average student to graduate, the low proportion of graduates relative to intake, and the disproportionality between the number of students in the various fields and the requirements of the labour market.”<sup>74</sup>

In order to overcome these overall weaknesses the planners proposed setting up a joint planning committee including representatives of all the higher education institutions under the auspices of the Ministry of Planning. The aim of the committee was to develop within the first three years of the plan a policy framework to achieve co-ordinated development of higher education. The main aim of the framework was to make the higher education system “more responsive to the requirements of development and the needs of the labour markets in quality, quantity and speed of response.”<sup>75</sup>

Although the introduction of an increased stipulated minimum level of educational attainment would assist with the specific problems of high drop-out rate, low graduate rate, and length of time taken for a degree no specific proposal was put forward. The planners did admit that “greater selectivity in admissions”<sup>76</sup> would help overcome these problems. Furthermore, earlier in the document the authorities argued that “an elitist system dealing with a selected, and therefore more promising student population, could not have been justified within the prevailing socio-economic system.”<sup>77</sup> Both these statements would indicate that planners were aware the problem could be overcome, but not without causing social problems by excluding students, from what is considered in Saudi Arabia to be attainment of status, enrolment at university.

As with previous plans a number of vague strategic principles, objectives and policies were outlined for higher education. For example one of the three objectives was given as “to continue to pursue each institution’s chartered purpose.”<sup>78</sup> However, on this occasion no specific plans were forthcoming for each of the individual higher education institutions. A more accurate impression of the future for this sector can be gained by analysing tables 4.23, 4.24 and 4.25.



**Table 4.23 Planned Increase in Higher Education Enrolments in the Fourth Development Plan**

Higher Education Establishment	1984-85	1989-90	Rate of Growth	
			Last Plan	This Plan
University of Riyadh	22427	24400	32.2	8.8
K.F.U. of Petroleum and Minerals	3150	5396	57.5	71.3
King Abdul Aziz University	14083	22474	82.3	60.0
King Faisal University	3150	5396	473.4	71.3
Umm Al-Qura University*	9738	11950	n/a	22.7
Islamic University	3400	4630	108.8	36.2
Imam Islamic University	9344	14970	80.0	60.2
<b>Total</b>	<b>65638</b>	<b>88353</b>	<b>72.8</b>	<b>34.6</b>

Sources: Adapted from Kingdom of Saudi Arabia Ministry of Planning, Third Development Plan 1980-1985, (Riyadh: Ministry of Planning, 1980), table 5-16, p.315 and pp.320, 321, 322, 323 and 324 and Kingdom of Saudi Arabia Ministry of Planning, Fourth Development Plan 1985-1990, (Riyadh: Ministry of Planning, 1985), table 11-12, p.289.

\* - Previously part of King Abdul Aziz University.

Although the planners had called for a period of consolidation, from table 4.23 an increase of 34.6% was predicted for the five years of the plan, as compared with 72.8% in the previous plan. Indeed, the King Fahd University of Petroleum and Minerals, King Abdul Aziz University, King Faisal University and the Imam Islamic University were all anticipated to grow in excess of 60%, which could hardly be termed a period of consolidation.

**Table 4.24 Estimated Enrolment by Field of Study, Third and Fourth Plans**

Academic Discipline	Third Plan		Fourth Plan	
	Number	%	Number	%
Arts and Humanities	20,600	34.9	26,770	40.0
Social Sciences	17,900	30.3	22,827	34.0
Natural Sciences	20,500	34.7	17,403	26.0
<b>Total</b>	<b>59,000</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>67,000</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Source: Adapted from Kingdom of Saudi Arabia Ministry of Planning, Third Development Plan 1980-1985, (Riyadh: Ministry of Planning, 1980), pp.320-324 and Kingdom of Saudi Arabia Ministry of Planning, Fourth Development Plan 1985-1990, (Riyadh: Ministry of Planning, 1985), table 11-9, p.282.

From table 4.23, it is apparent that once again the Islamic universities were anticipated to grow by more than the average, with the larger of the two institutions increasing its numbers by 60.2%. When the students are analysed by discipline (see table 4.24) the figures produced in the fourth plan indicate that at the start of the period, 1984-85,



only around one quarter of students were expected to be studying the natural sciences. These figures indicate a failure during the third plan to achieve the planned rate of almost 35% for the natural sciences. The status quo was acknowledged in the fourth plan with the statement “enrolment percentages indicate that the mixture of graduates by field will not change much over the next years.”<sup>79</sup>

If the planned enrolments did not meet the criteria of consolidation what about the budget allocated to higher education? The figures in table 4.25 indicate that overall a contraction of expenditure was planned with a fall of in excess of SR5,300 million. In line with the policy that “no expansion in programs or physical facilities will be undertaken beyond those already approved and underway”<sup>80</sup> project expenditure was planned to fall by 60.1%, to SR9,541.8 million. However, the trend seen in the previous plans where operating expenditure was expected to increase far more rapidly than student numbers was again apparent. In the fourth plan these figures were 50.2% for operating costs and 34.6% for enrolment numbers. The sums could be an indication that the admitted inefficiencies in the system were not planned to be addressed, despite one of the two strategic principles of the Fourth Development Plan being “to increase productivity, reduce waste and extravagance, and rationalise subsidies to achieve economies in investments and expenditures.”<sup>81</sup>

**Table 4.25 Comparison of Finance Allocations for Higher Education in the Third and Fourth Plans, (SR Millions)**

Years	Expenditure		Rate of Growth %	
	1980-85	1985-90	Last Plan	This Plan
Recurrent	20,467.7	30,749.9	273.2	50.2
Project	25,164.5	9,541.8	275.3	-60.1
<b>Total</b>	<b>45,632.2</b>	<b>40,291.7</b>	<b>274.3</b>	<b>-11.7</b>

Source: Adapted from Kingdom of Saudi Arabia Ministry of Planning, Third Development Plan 1980-1985, (Riyadh: Ministry of Planning, 1980), table 5-25, p. 340 and Kingdom of Saudi Arabia Ministry of Planning, Fourth Development Plan 1985-1990, (Riyadh: Ministry of Planning, 1985), table 11-13, p.290.

#### **4.5.2. VOCATIONAL AND TECHNICAL EDUCATION**

The Fourth Development Plan concentrated on the development of GOTEVT which had been established during the previous development plan and the IPA. GOVEVT's



fundamental task was to “modify the outlook and attitudes of Saudi manpower towards a more positive view of vocational trades and manual work.”<sup>82</sup> The statement was an explicit acknowledgement of the cultural problem whereby Saudis preferred not to work in certain types of jobs because the vocation was considered of low status. A further priority of GOTEVT was to shift vocational training from the populous areas to smaller, less developed locations to develop the human resources of these areas.

The issues which the planners required the IPA to address during the Fourth Plan included:

- “poor attendance at many senior management development seminars due to competing demands on participants’ time;
- low attendance and high drop out in many pre-service courses;
- insufficient planning by agencies regarding attendance by their staff members at training courses; and
- shortages of suitable instructors, researchers, and consultants - especially Saudi professionals - needed to perform IPA’s range of activities and services.”<sup>83</sup>

The establishment of GOVEVT and the renewed emphasis on IPA for civil service training highlighted the changing priorities of the authorities from supporting a blanket increase in education to a more precise targeting of VTE. This new direction was confirmed by an analysis of expenditures for VTE, which were to increase overall by 30.5%, as compared with a drop in budget for higher education of 11.7%. As can be seen from table 4.26 recurrent expenditure was due to grow by 214.8%, while project finance was to reduce by 48.2%.

**Table 4.26 VTE Budget Comparison, Third and Fourth Plans.**

Years	1980-85 SR million	1985-90 SR million	Rate of Growth %
Recurrent	1753.0	5518.2	214.8
Project	4098.9	2121.2	-48.2
<b>Total</b>	<b>5851.9</b>	<b>7639.4</b>	<b>30.5</b>

Source: Adapted from Kingdom of Saudi Arabia Ministry of Planning, Third Development Plan 1980-1985, (Riyadh: Ministry of Planning, 1980), table 5-25, p.340 and Kingdom of Saudi Arabia Ministry of Planning, Fourth Development Plan 1985-1990, (Riyadh: Ministry of Planning, 1985), table 11-16, p.301.



**Table 4.27 Vocational Training in the Third and Fourth Plans**

Type of Training	Enrolments		Graduates	
	1980-85	1985-90	1980-85	1985-90
Pre-vocational	3892	10,579	2,722	8,795
Vocational	19964	47,634	13,975	34,410
Instructor Training	830	n/a.	830	350
Vocational Test	n/a.	n/a.	n/a.	100,000
Skill Measurement	n/a.	n/a.	n/a.	500
On-the-job Training	1235	n/a.	1,235	16,650
<b>Total</b>	<b>n/a.</b>	<b>n/a.</b>	<b>n/a.</b>	<b>160,705</b>

Source: Adapted from Kingdom of Saudi Arabia Ministry of Planning, *Third Development Plan 1980-1985*, (Riyadh: Ministry of Planning, 1980), table 5-21, p.325 and Kingdom of Saudi Arabia Ministry of Planning, *Fourth Development Plan 1985-1990*, (Riyadh: Ministry of Planning, 1985), table 11-15, p.299.

Once again, an overall comparison between two plans is not possible because of different styles of reporting for the output of vocational training during the plan. However, from table 4.27, it is apparent that where comparison is possible the figures for the fourth plan are considerably higher than those in the third plan, with the exception of Instructor Training which was projected to fall from 830 to 350. In terms of number of graduates pre-vocational training was expected to increase its output by a factor of in excess of three. Similarly the increase for vocational training was to be 2.5, and for on-the-job training 13.5.

### 4.5.3. LABOUR MARKET

The overall plan for manpower demand was predicted to fall by 225,500, or 5.1%. Furthermore with the entry of 374,000 new Saudi entrants to the labour market the planners were confidently predicting a fall in the number of non-Saudis in the work force for the first time since the start of the First Development Plan. This predicted fall was despite the experience of the planners in the Third Plan when non-Saudis in the labour force were anticipated to rise fractionally but actually rose at an annual rate of 11.7%.<sup>84</sup> The fourth plan optimistically stated that there was an "excellent opportunity to change the pattern employment in the Kingdom and to strengthen the position of Saudis in it....[N]ot only the share, but also the absolute number of non-Saudi workers in the Kingdom will decline."<sup>85</sup> The target highlighted in table 4.28 was to reduce the



number of non-Saudis from 2.66 million to 2.06 million.<sup>86</sup> Furthermore “this reduction is one of the most important targets in the plan.”<sup>87</sup>

**Table 4.28 Planned Breakdown of Labour Force by Nationality in the Fourth Development Plan**

	1985 '000s	1990 '000s	Rate of Growth	
			Last Plan	This Plan
Saudis	1786.0	2160.7	10.3	21.0
Non-Saudis	2660.0	2059.8	0.9	-22.7
<b>Total</b>	<b>4446.0</b>	<b>4220.5</b>	<b>6.3</b>	<b>-5.1</b>

Source: Adapted from Kingdom of Saudi Arabia Ministry of Planning, *Third Development Plan 1980-1985*, (Riyadh: Ministry of Planning, 1980), table 3-7, p.98 and Kingdom of Saudi Arabia Ministry of Planning, *Fourth Development Plan 1985-1990*, (Riyadh: Ministry of Planning, 1985), tables 5-7, p.84.

For the first time the planners actually devoted a section of the plan to Saudization. In the section a number of preconditions were laid down before the targets could be attained. These contingencies included:

- productivity levels returning to 1979-80 levels;
- the private sector replacing 374,000 expatriates by an equivalent number of Saudis;
- the skill profile of the Saudi work-force entrants matching the skill requirements of the economy; and
- improvements in the Government's administrative system for monitoring the non-Saudi work-force.<sup>88</sup>

Although the plan was heavily dependent on the private sector to reduce its employment of non-Saudis the planners failed to offer any suggestions or incentives to achieve this change. Furthermore, the planners confirmed that no new regulations would be introduced to restrict “the stay or employment of expatriate individuals.”<sup>89</sup>

Unfortunately, it was not possible to extrapolate any figures for the breakdown of non-Saudis by either sector or occupation group. The continued emphasis of the planners to attempt to alter the sectoral employment in the Kingdom can be seen in table 4.29. While the levels of employment were to drop overall, within the productive sector increases were forecast in agriculture, petroleum, other mining and other manufacturing. As in the previous plan a significant fall was expected in construction



employment. Within the service sectors only transport was anticipated to grow, but only by 2.4%. Significantly, government employment was forecast to drop by 4.9%, in comparison to the growth of 31.2% in the previous plan.

**Table 4.29 Planned Breakdown of Labour Force by Sector in the Fourth Development Plan**

Sector	1985		1990		Growth Rates	
	'000s	%	'000s	%	Last Plan	This Plan
<b>Producing Sectors</b>						
Agriculture	617.4	13.9	663.0	15.7	-11.7	7.4
Petroleum	65.1	1.5	73.0	1.7	27.8	12.1
Other Mining	5.1	0.1	5.2	0.1	34.2	2.0
Other Manufacturing	411.4	9.3	531.2	12.6	57.6	29.1
Utilities	147.4	3.3	147.4	3.5	49.2	0.0
Construction	885.9	19.9	580.9	13.8	-25.7	-34.4
<b>Service Sectors</b>						
Trade	556.1	12.5	493.0	11.7	9.3	-11.4
Transport	303.4	6.8	310.7	7.4	28.0	2.4
Services	985.1	22.2	969.8	22.9	6.4	-1.6
Government*	469.1	10.5	446.3	10.6	31.2	-4.9
<b>Total</b>	<b>4446.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>4220.5</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>6.3</b>	<b>-5.1</b>

Source: Adapted from Kingdom of Saudi Arabia Ministry of Planning, *Third Development Plan 1980-1985*, (Riyadh: Ministry of Planning, 1980), table 3.9, p.100 and Kingdom of Saudi Arabia Ministry of Planning, *Fourth Development Plan 1985-1990*, (Riyadh: Ministry of Planning, 1985), table 5-8, p.86.

\* excludes non-civilian employment and includes daily wage workers.

In terms of share of total employment the service sector was to remain at the top. However, by the end of the plan the next three places were to be taken by agriculture, construction and other manufacturing. Trade and government were both expected to drop in relative importance.

#### 4.5.4. HUMAN RESOURCE DEVELOPMENT

The main objectives of the Fourth Development Plan did not specifically link the issues of manpower and further education or training. However, among the key issues identified in the plan was the need to match education with skill requirements of the



private sector. (The public sector was not mentioned). As with previous plans the authorities acknowledged that to achieve a better balance it was essential that:

“the quality and quantity of those graduating from the education and training establishments match the requirements of the private economy; and special technical and vocational training programs for adults (both currently in the work force and potential workers) be expanded and based on private sector needs.”<sup>90</sup>

The policy options, which were rather vague, put forward to assist with these general objectives were:

- “influencing formal education and training curricula to adapt to the needs of a competitive economy relying on advanced technology and related systems of economic organisation;
- providing financial incentives to private sector employers to promote the employment and specialised training of Saudi workers; and
- collecting and disseminating information on current labour market conditions and future requirements to all citizens, as well as information on social moral, and religious value of work, to influence their attitudes and expectations.”<sup>91</sup>

Throughout the plan two aspects are continually highlighted: the realisation that the economy is dependent on non-Saudi workers; and the resource gap between the output of the higher education system and the needs of the public and private sector labour markets. However, it is difficult to find policies which actually address either of these human resource problems. For example in the section on human resource development (higher education), the resource gap is acknowledged, with the result that “universities must become more cognisant of manpower requirements in occupational terms and also have sufficient forewarning of shifts in demand to plan and implement modifications in instructional problems.”<sup>92</sup> According to the plan, there would therefore need to be an improved flow of information between universities and former pupils, the Ministry of Planning and the Supreme Manpower Council. However, when the objectives and policies for higher education are discussed no mention is made of setting up an arrangement to establish, monitor and evaluate the flow of information, let alone establish a method of obtaining such data.



#### **4.6. THE FIFTH DEVELOPMENT PLAN (1990-1995)**

The prime focus of the Fifth Development was to switch the emphasis for development from the public sector to the private sector.<sup>93</sup> As with the previous plans, the analysis studies the statements and figures relating to higher education, training and manpower. Higher education is discussed with reference to the planned increases in new entrants (rather than total enrolment figures as in previous plans), the planned breakdown of disciplines of study and the budget of higher education. VTE is studied through proposed budget and projected output. Manpower is analysed by means of the figures extrapolated in relation to nationality and economic sector. All the issues are then related by an analysis of the statements in the Fifth Development Plan.

##### **4.6.1. HIGHER EDUCATION**

In the first three development plans specific objectives were set for each of the higher education institutions, whereas in the fourth plan the objectives were set for the higher education in general. The fifth plan sees a continued generalisation, as the objectives of higher education are included as part of the overall package for education. Nine objectives were established for general education of which five specifically related to higher education. The objectives were:

- “to raise the quality, effectiveness and efficiency of...the administrative performance of higher education institutions;
- to expand and diversify higher education programs and ensure that the activities of higher education institutions are responsive to the requirements of socio-economic development;
- to improve co-ordination and co-operation amongst post-secondary education institutions;
- to continually encourage and develop scientific research activities; and
- to provide all citizens of ability with opportunities to pursue a university education.”<sup>94</sup>

The objectives had been drawn up after a number of areas of concern which affected higher education at the outset of the fifth plan had been highlighted. Among the concerns raised were low internal efficiency and external effectiveness through “high



repetition and dropout rates....and through some degree of mismatch between the skills acquired by graduates and those needed by the national economy.”<sup>95</sup> Secondly, a lack of co-ordination existed between higher education institutions. Allied to this was the lack of “a comprehensive policy framework (or master plan).”<sup>96</sup> Thirdly, the plan focused on the shortage of linkages between higher education and the private sector. Finally, there was a recognition that higher education could not provide a place at university for all secondary school graduates without reducing the quality of university education, increasing dropout rates, and being able to meet the technical manpower needs of development.<sup>97</sup>

Although the authorities had identified the lack of liaison between the private sector and higher education no objectives were set to overcome the problem. However, in the plan there was outlined a proposal to set up number of new initiatives, which included private sector employees being encouraged to provide higher education students with practical on-the-job training during vacations and the establishment of a co-ordination unit between the universities and the private sector.<sup>98</sup>

The policies which were proposed to achieve the objectives included:

- the creation of a master plan by the middle of the fifth plan period;
- the expansion of post-secondary technical education;
- specific criteria being laid down for the admission of university students; and
- the encouragement of universities to seek funding from private sources to establish ‘Centres of Excellence’ to conduct research and development in applied sciences and technology.<sup>99</sup>

The planned level of new entrants, as displayed in table 4.30, once again showed that an increase in student numbers was anticipated. However, as with the fourth plan, the rate of growth was to be slower than in the previous five years. Turning to the new entrants at the individual institutions the importance of Islam to the social and culture of Saudi Arabia was highlighted with both the universities in this field planning greater than average increases. The two newest universities King Faisal and Umm Al-Qura were both expected to grow by more than double the average increase. On the other



hand Riyadh University, King Abdul Aziz University and the King Fahd University of Petroleum and Minerals were planned to increase new entrants by only 15.1%, 11.9% and 9.5%, respectively.

**Table 4.30 Planned Increase in New Entrants in Higher Education in the Fifth Development Plan**

Higher Education Establishment	New Entrants		Rate of Growth	
	1989-90	1994-95	Last Plan	This Plan
University of Riyadh	7677	8838	13.9	15.1
K.F.U. of Petroleum and Minerals	1487	1628	40.9	9.5
King Abdul Aziz University	6755	7557	39.3	11.9
King Faisal University	1135	1653	56.9	45.6
Umm Al-Qura University	2420	3526	22.8	45.7
Islamic University	750	1000	40.4	33.3
Imam Islamic University	3102	4279	34.0	37.9
<b>Total</b>	<b>23326</b>	<b>28481</b>	<b>28.0</b>	<b>22.1</b>

Sources: Adapted from Kingdom of Saudi Arabia Ministry of Planning, Fourth Development Plan 1985-1990, (Riyadh: Ministry of Planning, 1985), table 11-12, p.289 and Kingdom of Saudi Arabia Ministry of Planning, Fifth Development Plan 1990-1995, (Riyadh: Ministry of Planning, 1990), table 12.6, p.272.

**Table 4.31 Estimated New Entrants by Discipline in the Fifth Development Plan**

Academic Discipline	1989-90	1994-95	% Share	Rate of Growth
Humanities and Arts	7643	10087	31.1	32.0
Social Sciences	8522	11080	34.1	30.0
Natural Sciences	8564	11294	34.8	31.9
<b>Total<sup>100</sup></b>	<b>24729</b>	<b>32461</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>31.3</b>

Source: Adapted from Kingdom of Saudi Arabia Ministry of Planning, Fifth Development Plan 1990-1995, (Riyadh: Ministry of Planning, 1990), table 12.4, p.270.

From table 4.31, which is concerned with new entrants rather than total enrolments, it can be seen that despite pronouncements to the contrary the imbalance between students studying the natural sciences and other subjects was expected to remain. Although natural science students were planned to be the largest sector, there was actually very little difference in percentage terms between the three categories. As was seen in the fourth plan, those students studying the natural sciences only accounted for around one quarter of the total higher education enrolment. The figures given for new entrants in the fifth plan were not going to alter the fundamental imbalance. Furthermore, in terms of growth throughout the plan, the social sciences were to be



the fastest growing sector by new entrants. Thus further distorting the balance between the needs of development and the output of the higher education institutions.

**Table 4.32 Comparison of Finance Allocations for Higher Education, Fourth and Fifth Plans (SR Millions)**

Years	1985-90	1990-95	Rate of Growth %	
			Last Plan	This Plan
Recurrent	30,749.9	113,737.0	50.2	269.9
Project	9,541.8	16,831.0	-60.1	76.4
<b>Total</b>	<b>40,291.7</b>	<b>130,568.0</b>	<b>-11.7</b>	<b>224.1</b>

Source: Adapted from Kingdom of Saudi Arabia Ministry of Planning, Fourth Development Plan 1985-1990, (Riyadh: Ministry of Planning, 1985), table 11-13, p.290 and Kingdom of Saudi Arabia Ministry of Planning, Fifth Development Plan 1990-1995, (Riyadh: Ministry of Planning, 1990), table 12.7, p.273.

The consolidation phase of the fourth plan gave way to a sharp increase in financial terms for the fifth plan. Overall higher education expenditure was to grow by a massive 224.1% (see table 4.32) Of this figure, project spending was to increase from SR9,541.8 million to SR16,831 million, an increase of 76.4% compared with the planned fall of 60.1% in the previous plan. Once again, recurrent expenditure was planned to outgrow student numbers. On this occasion a 269.9% increase was planned against a rise in new entrants of only 22.1% or 31.3% (depending on which figures are taken, see footnote 100). The internal efficiency savings which were one of the objectives of the plan would be unlikely to be met, given this huge disparity of figures.

#### **4.6.2. VOCATIONAL AND TECHNICAL EDUCATION**

The Fifth Plan outlined six key issues which were to be addressed by VTE during the five year period. The issues were the lack of balance between output and the needs of the labour market. Secondly, the lack of efficient uses of resources in the sector was identified. Next, the planners highlighted the lack of co-ordination between the various VTE institutions. Fourthly, the lack of data on the labour market requirements for training was identified. Furthermore, the planners argued the failure to create an overall master plan for the sector had not helped the efficiency of VTE. Finally, the need to attract more students into the sector was proposed.<sup>101</sup>



In line with the overall context of the Fifth Development Plan, the authorities also stipulated that a “more active contribution will be made by the private sector.”<sup>102</sup>

Three suggestions were proposed to create the linkage. These were:

- “contributions in setting up some vocational training centres, institutions, schools, and technical colleges under long term lease agreements;
- contributions to technical manpower preparation by creating specialised technical institutes; and
- the formation of national technical committees which would contribute to the development of vocational and technical education and training.”<sup>103</sup>

**Table 4.33 VTE Budget Comparison, Fourth and Fifth Plans.**

Years	1985-90 SR million	1990-95 SR million	Rate of Growth %
Recurrent	5518.2	5185.0	-6.0
Project	2121.2	1830.0	-13.7
<b>Total</b>	<b>7639.4</b>	<b>7015.0</b>	<b>-8.2</b>

Source: Adapted from Kingdom of Saudi Arabia Ministry of Planning, Fourth Development Plan 1985-1990, (Riyadh: Ministry of Planning, 1985), table 11-16, p.301 and Kingdom of Saudi Arabia Ministry of Planning, Fifth Development Plan 1990-1995, (Riyadh: Ministry of Planning, 1990), table 12.10, p.285.

Despite the pronouncements in the plan to overcome the issues which had arisen in the previous plans, the budget for VTE was actually to be reduced during the fifth plan by 8.2% (see table 4.33) In comparison, the budget for higher education was to increase by almost 225%. Thus, it is apparent that the focus of post-secondary education and training was due to return to the higher education sector. Even, the recurrent budget for VTE was projected to decrease between the fourth and fifth plans, by SR333.3 million.

Unfortunately, it is impossible to draw comparison between the output of the fourth and fifth plans for VTE due to the lack of comparable figures. The information available for the Fifth Plan can be found in table 4.34. From the growth rates over the five years of the plan, with a projected increase in new entrants of 110.2%, and of graduates of 124.%, it is difficult to relate these increases to the reduced budget. However, it is possible that by reducing inefficiencies in the system the planned output could be achieved in line with the reduced budget. A further feature of the figures is



the projected increase in graduates is generally higher than the increase in new entrants. This difference reflects the attempts to increase the efficiency of TVE by reducing dropout rates.

The type of training which was to be emphasised during the currency of the Fifth Development Plan were Technical Colleges where graduates were to increase by 398.3%, Higher Institutes of Commerce (212.1%), Commercial Secondary Schools (173.4%), and Vocational Training (161.9%). In-service training (108.1%) and Industrial Secondary Schools (103.4%) were also expected to more than double their output although the increases were less than average for the sector.

**Table 4.34 GOTEVT and IPA Training Targets, Fifth Development Plan**

Institutions	New Entrants			Graduates		
	1989-90	1990-95	Growth	1989-90	1990-95	Growth
<b>GOTEVT</b>						
Technical Colleges	899	3260	262.6	415	2068	398.3
Higher Inst. of Commerce	400	644	61.0	165	515	212.1
Industrial Sec. Schools	2864	5191	81.2	1512	3075	103.4
Commercial Sec. Schools	4549	8943	96.6	2009	5493	173.4
Agricultural Sec. Schools	143	253	76.9	134	144	7.5
Inst. of Tech. Supervisors	401	700	74.6	248	422	70.2
Vocational Training	8463	21443	153.4	6932	18156	161.9
Instructor Training	100	100	0.0	75	90	20.0
On-the-job Training	280	280	0.0	280	280	0.0
<b>IPA</b>						
Pre-Service Training	1750	3000	71.4	1543	2675	73.4
In-Service Training	7800	16220	107.9	7573	15758	108.1
Special Programs	392	660	68.4	387	653	68.7
English Training	1928	2300	19.3	1663	2047	44.7
<b>Totals</b>	<b>29969</b>	<b>62994</b>	<b>110.2</b>	<b>22936</b>	<b>51376</b>	<b>124.0</b>

Source: Kingdom of Saudi Arabia Ministry of Planning, *Fifth Development Plan 1990-1995*, (Riyadh: Ministry of Planning, 1990), p.283.

#### 4.6.3. LABOUR MARKET

Employment increased during the Fourth Development Plan by an average annual rate of 1.9%. Construction activity declined, with the sector reducing its work force by 526,000 over the course of the plan. In most other sectors of the economy, there were moderate changes in employment, except the services sector, which increased by nearly



790,000 (this was due to increases in domestic employment), and the government sector, which increased at an average annual rate of 5.9%. Employment increased slightly in the agricultural sector (1.1%).<sup>104</sup>

**Table 4.35 Planned Breakdown of Labour Force by Nationality in the Fifth Development Plan**

	1990 '000s	1995 '000s	Rate of Growth	
			Last Plan	This Plan
Saudis	1923.2	2357.1	21.0	22.6
Non-Saudis	3858.6	3628.2	-22.7	-6.0
<b>Total</b>	<b>5771.8</b>	<b>5985.3</b>	<b>-5.1</b>	<b>3.7</b>

Source: Adapted from Kingdom of Saudi Arabia Ministry of Planning, *Fifth Development Plan 1990-1995*, (Riyadh: Ministry of Planning, 1990), tables 6.3 and 6.4, pp.124-125.

During the fifth plan total employment was set to rise by 213,500,<sup>105</sup> with 574,800 Saudis entering and 140,900 leaving the labour market<sup>106</sup> and 220,400 foreign workers being replaced.<sup>107</sup> Overall, the labour market was forecast to grow by 3.7% over the five years, from 5.77 million to 5.99 million. As can be seen from table 4.35, in comparison the fourth plan had forecast a drop in labour demand by 5.1%. While the previous plan had anticipated a drop in non-Saudi employment of 22.7%, the Fifth Plan's figure of 6.0% would have seemed to be more realistic. Both plans had expected Saudi employment to rise by just over 20%.

As with the Fourth Development Plan, the principal issue for manpower was considered to be Saudization, which the planners argued could not be achieved without a closing of the wage differentials between Saudis and non-Saudis, particularly for those with low skill levels. Furthermore, the authorities stated that the success of the Saudization program required:

“the implementation of selective measures designed to ensure the employment of Saudi new entrants into the labour market in all sectors of the economy, and the taking of measures to improve the quality, remuneration expectations and attitudes of all potential Saudi workers.”<sup>108</sup>

To help achieve the aforementioned measures the policy option of devising “Saudization plans...every year by public sector agencies (and the private sector be



encouraged to follow this practise also) that reflect the changing labour market conditions and employment priorities.”<sup>109</sup>

A second issue which the planners addressed was the need to establish a balance between supply and demand in the labour market. The role of information was highlighted as a method by which the problem could be overcome. To this end it was argued that there was an urgent need to “improve the scope and quality of employment placement and job counselling services and develop and widely disseminate on a regular basis information and analysis on current conditions and the future labour market conditions.”<sup>110</sup>

**Table 4.36 Planned Breakdown of Labour Force by Sector in the Fifth Development Plan**

Sector	1990		1995		Growth Rates	
	'000s	%	'000s	%	Last Plan	This Plan
<b>Producing Sectors</b>						
Agriculture	569.2	9.9	596.6	10.0	7.4	4.8
Petroleum	67.6	1.1	69.2	1.1	12.1	2.4
Other Mining	3.5	0.1	3.8	0.1	2.0	8.6
Other Manufacturing	354.1	6.1	439.0	7.3	29.1	24.0
Utilities	126.9	2.2	136.7	2.3	0.0	7.7
Construction	944.1	16.4	959.9	16.0	-34.4	1.7
<b>Service Sectors</b>						
Trade	898.3	15.6	922.2	15.4	-11.4	2.7
Transport	262.3	4.5	271.3	4.5	2.4	3.4
Services	1921.0	33.3	1953.1	32.7	-1.6	1.7
Government*	624.8	10.8	633.5	10.6	-4.9	1.4
<b>Total</b>	<b>5771.8</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>5985.3</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>-5.1</b>	<b>3.7</b>

Source: Adapted from Kingdom of Saudi Arabia Ministry of Planning, *Fourth Development Plan 1985-1990*, (Riyadh: Ministry of Planning, 1985), table 5-8, p.86 and Kingdom of Saudi Arabia Ministry of Planning, *Fifth Development Plan 1990-1995*, (Riyadh: Ministry of Planning, 1990), table 6.2, p.121.

\* excludes non-civilian employment and includes daily wage workers.

Among other issues which the planners sought to address included the need to improve Saudi employment opportunities in the private sector. Although the third and fourth plans had also identified this aspect “the achievement of this objective has been limited, both by changing labour market conditions and by a lack of implementation of appropriate labour market measures.”<sup>111</sup>



The plans for changes in the breakdown of the labour force by sector were not dramatic in the Fifth Development Plan. Total employment, as previously discussed, was expected to rise by 3.7% against an anticipated fall of 5.1% in the previous plan. All sectors were expected to increase their manpower requirements during the five years of the plan, with the majority in the range of 1.4% to 4.8%, (i.e. around the average). However, utilities (7.7%), other mining (8.6%) and other manufacturing (24.0%) were expected to show significant increases. The planned stability of the fifth plan compared with the fourth plan is apparent from table 4.36, where the respective ranges of growth rate are 1.4% to 24.0% and -34.4% to 29.1%. This planned stability, also, resulted in little difference in sectoral share of the labour force, with no changes in importance and all sectors showing only slight changes in share.

#### **4.6.4. HUMAN RESOURCE DEVELOPMENT**

In the Fifth Plan the planners emphasised the need to:

“place more emphasis on technical education and vocational training at the secondary level, through channelling a greater proportion of the secondary student population towards post-secondary training programs, rather than continuing to increase the numbers of enrolments and academic programs in universities.”<sup>112</sup>

Furthermore, the imbalance between supply in terms of graduates' skills and manpower demand and the excessive dropout rates and repetition were both identified as continuing problems.<sup>113</sup>

In order to overcome the problems identified and to ensure the development of Saudi national manpower the following policy measures were proposed,

- through “shifting emphasis from expansion to enhancement of quality”<sup>114</sup> in the education system;
- by increasing the priority to technical education;
- by establishing standards to ensure potential graduates are of an acceptable quality;
- by establishing career counselling centres in secondary and post-secondary education institutions;



- by creating a 'master plan' for co-ordinating the various segments of the education system to ensure the meeting of the demands of the labour market; and
- by creating a policy framework to expand VTE at secondary and post-secondary levels.

In addition to these policies a number of options were also proposed to create closer ties between education and the private sector.<sup>115</sup>

Once again, it is apparent from the statements issued in the plan that the Saudi authorities were fully aware of the problems caused by the increasing number of non-Saudis in the work-force and the imbalance between suitably skilled Saudis and the demand for that type of labour. However, the continuing pace of development, the novel problem of a developing country with a lack of an adequate native labour pool rather than a shortage of capital, and social and cultural constraints seemed to hamper the implementation of policies that could help solve the problems.

**Table 4.37 Educational Level of Students Entering Labour Market (000s)**

Educational Level	Total Entrants	% Entrants
<b>University</b>	<b>68.6</b>	<b>12.0</b>
Engineering	4.7	0.8
Natural Sciences	8.8	1.5
Medical Science and Health	3.3	0.6
Statistics, Mathematics, Computer Science	5.1	0.9
Economics and Business	5.3	0.9
Social Sciences	19.0	3.3
Teacher Education	10.6	1.9
Religious Studies	11.8	2.1
<b>Junior Colleges: Technical</b>	<b>7.4</b>	<b>1.3</b>
Industrial	5.7	1.0
Commercial	1.7	0.3
<b>Secondary School</b>	<b>148.5</b>	<b>25.8</b>
General	110.6	19.2
Technical and Vocational	37.9	6.6
<b>Intermediate School</b>	<b>60.5</b>	<b>10.5</b>
<b>Elementary School</b>	<b>127.0</b>	<b>22.1</b>
<b>Less than Elementary</b>	<b>90.4</b>	<b>15.7</b>
<b>Pre-Service Adult Vocational Training</b>	<b>72.4</b>	<b>12.6</b>
<b>Total</b>	<b>574.8</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Source: Kingdom of Saudi Arabia Ministry of Planning, *Fifth Development Plan 1990-1995*, (Riyadh: Ministry of Planning, 1990), p.127.



For the first time the planners give figures as to level of education attained by the planned new Saudi entrants to the labour market. The results are displayed in table 4.37 from which it is apparent that despite the heavy emphasis on technical education in the previous plans, the projection is for only 1.3% of Saudis entering the labour market during the Fifth Development Plan to have post-secondary school technical qualifications. Of the 12% of the planned new entrants to the work-force with a university degree, nearly half (44.9%) will hold a degree in the social sciences or in religious studies. Whereas, less than a quarter (24.4%) will be qualified in the natural sciences, engineering or medical science and health.

#### **4.7. CONCLUSION**

From the analysis of the first five development plans produced by Saudi Arabia, there is a noticeable evolution of objectives. In the first plan the emphasis was on establishing a basic infrastructure and the provision of government services, including higher education and VTE, to enable a diversification away from the dependence on oil, agriculture and trade. The result, as anticipated by the planners, was that the native Saudi labour market was unable to cope with surge in demand. The shortfall, therefore had to be obtained by the import of labour.

The unanticipated increase in oil prices during the First Development Plan allowed those responsible for the second plan to continue infrastructure development and industrialisation. The increase in revenue, also allowed unprecedented budgets to be set for government expenditure, which was set at SR638 billion, an eight fold increase over the first plan.<sup>116</sup> Higher education expenditure, as discussed previously, was set to increase by almost six times.

The rapid development throughout the first two plans had created a number of problems which the planners attempted to address in the Third Development Plan. The first problem was the size of the non-Saudi work force, which for the first time the planners attempted to reduce. Although the concept eventually became referred to Saudization, this term was not used in the Third Plan. The second related aspect was the failure of the education system to produce the requisite number of graduates with



qualifications sought by the labour market. One of the main responses to these problems was a huge increase in emphasis in education, with student numbers planned to rocket, along with expenditure.

In the Fourth Development Plan the emphasise of the plan switched from wholesale development to attempting to structurally adjust the economy by stressing the private sector at the expense of the public sector. The two human resource problems identified in the third plan remained, and were re-emphasised. According to the Fourth Development Plan “the quality gap between skills required and skills offered is likely to become wider in future”<sup>117</sup> and that was considered to be the most important potential obstacle to increasing Saudi employment in all occupational categories. The concept of Saudization was explicitly referred to for the first time in the various development plans. In the field of higher education, a period of consolidation was anticipated with project expenditure set to fall for the first time since 1970.

The Fifth Development Plan continued along the lines of its predecessor, with emphasise again on the private sector. Once again the twin problems of non-Saudis and the lack of suitable graduates received prominence. The planners stated:

“although impressive progress has been made by the kingdom in developing human resources at all levels, a number of issues have emerged which require special attention ... Expansion of the higher education institution still requires the adoption of higher education, as well as consistency between the graduate output and its various specialisation and the manpower requirements of the national economy.”<sup>118</sup>

On this occasion the planners aimed to boost higher education in terms of budget to attempt to overcome the latter problem.

While the role of education has been found to be of particular importance in developing manpower resources and this fact has been acknowledged in successive development plans it should be noted that the manpower issues described above are usually described on a general basis. However, a component which has received insufficient attention is the needs of manpower required at the higher levels.



It can be argued that by increasing the allocation of funds to higher education the government is illustrating its concern to overcome high level manpower problems. For example, higher education was allocated SR1,006.0 million in 1970-1975, in the First Development Plan.<sup>119</sup> By the Fifth Development Plan, the budget allocated had increased to SR130,568.0 millions,<sup>120</sup> a factor increase of almost 130.

The First Development Plan when referring to higher level manpower stated:

“Generally, the Government will continue its policy of supporting the development of higher education, both locally and the overseas scholarship program and in addition will facilitate the opening of new faculties in institutions in the Kingdom which can provide qualified high level manpower in fields in which severe shortages are being experienced. In the execution of this policy, it will be necessary to encourage students to study in fields which will contribute to the national effort. Emphasis will be placed on the following specialities in extending assistance to students.”<sup>121</sup>

Similar concerns were expressed in the Fourth Development Plan that “the Government will continue to support higher education in development of high level of manpower particularly with reference to the need for increased Saudization at all skill levels.”<sup>122</sup> By this plan the importance was to ensure the education system more responsive to the requirement of development through the labour market not only in quantity but also quality, where the latter refers to higher level manpower. Furthermore, the Government’s plan for the involvement of higher education in development were as follows:

- “Defining spheres of responsibility among the universities;
- Specifying criteria for the expansion or contraction of both facilities and programs of instruction and research;
- Establishing criteria and procedures for periodic accreditation of degree-granting programs;
- Rationalising admission policies and practices;
- Specifying standards for maintaining status as a student;
- Rationalising the system of student subsidies for university study both within the Kingdom and elsewhere; and
- Determining the form and structure for executive control of higher education development.”<sup>123</sup>

More generally, it should be noted that what is common to all the development plans was the emphasis on education to solve the problems of manpower in the Kingdom.



But the question of the higher level of manpower was only specifically considered in the first and the fourth development plans. The lack of emphasis on the higher levels of manpower has been one of the factors which has contributed to the failure to successfully implement Saudization.

From the documents reviewed, it can be seen that these developmental plan documents provide information on work-force development. They do not only register that there is need for manpower, but highlight the attitudes of the people, reflect on the concern for skilled manpower, and reflect on the concern that work-force must agree with Saudization. As a whole, these documents can be characterised as providing information about manpower needs and with the objective of promoting a rational understanding of the issues involved. They also summarise the role of education and on this basis argue that manpower needs are a serious educational issue and recurring problem.

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#### **ENDNOTES**

<sup>1</sup> Kingdom of Saudi Arabia Ministry of Planning, First Development Plan 1970-1975, (Riyadh: Ministry of Planning, 1970), p.95

<sup>2</sup> Ibid., pp.115-119.

<sup>3</sup> Ibid., p.119.

<sup>4</sup> Ibid., p.120.

<sup>5</sup> Ibid., p.120.

<sup>6</sup> Excludes figures for King Abdul Aziz University as these were not provided in the plan. This explains why the totals do not agree with table 4.3.

<sup>7</sup> Kingdom of Saudi Arabia Ministry of Planning, op.cit., p.130.

<sup>8</sup> Ibid., p.133.

<sup>9</sup> Ibid., p.24.

<sup>10</sup> Ibid., p.24.

<sup>11</sup> Ibid., p.24.

<sup>12</sup> Ibid., p.87.

<sup>13</sup> Ibid., p.24.

<sup>14</sup> Ibid., p.65.

<sup>15</sup> Ibid., p.86.

<sup>16</sup> Ibid., p.86.

<sup>17</sup> Ibid., p.90.

<sup>18</sup> Kingdom of Saudi Arabia Ministry of Planning, Second Development Plan 1975-1980, (Riyadh: Ministry of Planning, 1975), p.4.

<sup>19</sup> Ibid., p.4.

<sup>20</sup> Ibid., p.308.

<sup>21</sup> Ibid., p.351.

<sup>22</sup> Ibid., p.319.

<sup>23</sup> Ibid., p.308.



- <sup>24</sup> Ibid., pp.312-319.
- <sup>25</sup> Ibid., p.328.
- <sup>26</sup> Ibid., pp.328-330.
- <sup>27</sup> Ibid., p.330.
- <sup>28</sup> Ibid., p.334.
- <sup>29</sup> Ibid., p.320.
- <sup>30</sup> Ibid., p.323.
- <sup>31</sup> Ibid., pp.320-322.
- <sup>32</sup> Ibid., p.322.
- <sup>33</sup> Ibid., p.327.
- <sup>34</sup> Ibid., pp.347-348.
- <sup>35</sup> Ibid., p.340.
- <sup>36</sup> Ibid., p.340.
- <sup>37</sup> Ibid., p.242.
- <sup>38</sup> Ibid., p.216.
- <sup>39</sup> Ibid., p.216.
- <sup>40</sup> Ibid., p.4.
- <sup>41</sup> Ibid., p.4.
- <sup>42</sup> Ibid., p.215.
- <sup>43</sup> Ibid., p.216.
- <sup>44</sup> Ibid., p.216.
- <sup>45</sup> Kingdom of Saudi Arabia Ministry of Planning, Third Development Plan 1980-1985, (Riyadh: Ministry of Planning, 1980), p.298.
- <sup>46</sup> Ibid., p.298.
- <sup>47</sup> Ibid., p.292.
- <sup>48</sup> Ibid., p.299.
- <sup>49</sup> Ibid., p.300.
- <sup>50</sup> Ibid., p.303.
- <sup>51</sup> Ibid., p.303.
- <sup>52</sup> Ibid., p.319.
- <sup>53</sup> Ibid., p.321.
- <sup>54</sup> Ibid., p.322.
- <sup>55</sup> Ibid., p.323.
- <sup>56</sup> Ibid., p.321.
- <sup>57</sup> Ibid., pp.98-99.
- <sup>58</sup> Ibid., p.83.
- <sup>59</sup> Ibid., p.83.
- <sup>60</sup> Ibid., p.16.
- <sup>61</sup> Ibid., p.16.
- <sup>62</sup> Ibid., p.17.
- <sup>63</sup> Ibid., p.97.
- <sup>64</sup> Ibid., p.98.
- <sup>65</sup> Ibid., p.17.
- <sup>66</sup> Ibid., p.299.
- <sup>67</sup> Ibid., pp.301-302.
- <sup>68</sup> Ibid., p.301.
- <sup>69</sup> Ibid., p.305.
- <sup>70</sup> Ibid., p.306.
- <sup>71</sup> Ibid., p.83.
- <sup>72</sup> Kingdom of Saudi Arabia Ministry of Planning, Fourth Development Plan 1985-1990, (Riyadh: Ministry of Planning, 1985), p.279.
- <sup>73</sup> Ibid., p.52.
- <sup>74</sup> Ibid., p.55.
- <sup>75</sup> Ibid., pp.55-56.
- <sup>76</sup> Ibid., p.280.
- <sup>77</sup> Ibid., p.54.



- <sup>78</sup> Ibid., p.286.
- <sup>79</sup> Ibid., p.282.
- <sup>80</sup> Ibid., p.286.
- <sup>81</sup> Ibid., p.286.
- <sup>82</sup> Ibid., p.299.
- <sup>83</sup> Ibid., p.306.
- <sup>84</sup> Ibid., p.31.
- <sup>85</sup> Ibid., p.50.
- <sup>86</sup> Ibid., p.51.
- <sup>87</sup> Ibid., p.51.
- <sup>88</sup> Ibid., p.51.
- <sup>89</sup> Ibid., p.85.
- <sup>90</sup> Ibid., p.51.
- <sup>91</sup> Ibid., p.52.
- <sup>92</sup> Ibid., pp.282-283.
- <sup>93</sup> Kingdom of Saudi Arabia Ministry of Planning, Fifth Development Plan 1990-1995, (Riyadh: Ministry of Planning, 1990), p.46.
- <sup>94</sup> Ibid., p.256.
- <sup>95</sup> Ibid., p.262.
- <sup>96</sup> Ibid., p.263.
- <sup>97</sup> Ibid., pp.263-264.
- <sup>98</sup> Ibid., p.263.
- <sup>99</sup> Ibid., p.267.
- <sup>100</sup> Unfortunately, the discrepancies in the totals between table 4.24 and 4.25 are not explained in the narrative of the plan. Nor was it possible from the figures produced to establish a reason which would have accounted for the difference.
- <sup>101</sup> Kingdom of Saudi Arabia Ministry of Planning, (1990), op.cit., pp.277-278.
- <sup>102</sup> Ibid., p.279.
- <sup>103</sup> Ibid., p.279.
- <sup>104</sup> Ibid., p.31.
- <sup>105</sup> Ibid., p.118.
- <sup>106</sup> Ibid., p.126.
- <sup>107</sup> Ibid., p.56 and p.119.
- <sup>108</sup> Ibid., p.57.
- <sup>109</sup> Ibid., p.58.
- <sup>110</sup> Ibid., p.57.
- <sup>111</sup> Ibid., p.116.
- <sup>112</sup> Ibid., p.55.
- <sup>113</sup> Ibid., p.56.
- <sup>114</sup> Ibid., p.129.
- <sup>115</sup> Ibid., pp.129-131.
- <sup>116</sup> Kingdom of Saudi Arabia Ministry of Planning, Sixth Development Plan 1995-2000, (Riyadh: Ministry of Planning, 1995), p.44.
- <sup>117</sup> Kingdom of Saudi Arabia Ministry of Planning, (1985), op.cit., p.51.
- <sup>118</sup> Kingdom of Saudi Arabia Ministry of Planning, (1990), op.cit., p.55.
- <sup>119</sup> Kingdom of Saudi Arabia Ministry of Planning, (1970), op.cit., p.129.
- <sup>120</sup> Kingdom of Saudi Arabia Ministry of Planning, (1990), op.cit., p.273.
- <sup>121</sup> Kingdom of Saudi Arabia Ministry of Planning, (1970), op.cit., p.91.
- <sup>122</sup> Kingdom of Saudi Arabia Ministry of Planning, (1985), op.cit., pp 51-52.
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## CHAPTER FIVE

### METHODOLOGY

#### **5.1. INTRODUCTION**

As was emphasised in the previous chapter, both how to obtain the relevant information and how to use that information are important in the planning and implementation of a manpower study. Welch and Comer note that accuracy in selection of research method can help to give correct information and being success to the research programme.<sup>1</sup> Morrison notes that “whilst there is a battery of data-gathering instruments available to the evaluator, the choice of which ones to use is not arbitrary but determined by the appropriacy of the instrument to the purpose, style and methodology of the evaluation.”<sup>2</sup> Similarly, Brannen notes that decisions about methods also have implications for the outcome of the research project.<sup>3</sup> In this chapter a number of the techniques available for collection of the data on the manpower problems in Saudi Arabia will be considered.

#### **5.2. DESCRIPTION OF DATA COLLECTION TECHNIQUES**

As al-Asaf notes, there can be many research methods for gathering information to understand any phenomenon; each method has its advantages and disadvantages.<sup>4</sup> Asabab adds that one of the tests of the researcher is to identify the method which is most appropriate to the particular problem and the circumstances of the research.<sup>5</sup> A similar view is given by Rosenberg: “several approaches are available and the research worker should be flexible in conducting his analysis in a way which will maximise theoretical fruitfulness and will permit more confident conclusions.”<sup>6</sup>

The following sections will give reasons for, and describe some of the purposes and advantages in, the selection of the research methods adopted in the present study. The research used two principles in selecting the techniques for the field study, namely:



- choosing a technique which would be helpful in generating original data to answer the research question; and
- choosing a technique that was both feasible and effective in gathering adequate data quickly.

### **5.2.1. TYPES OF DATA COLLECTION TECHNIQUES**

There are four major sources of basic data. These are:

- documents, which include any written research, reports, academic literature, material held by organisations, official reports, statistics, legislation, etc.;
- interviews, which can be either structured or unstructured;
- observation, which can be conducted through participation, through a third person or in a laboratory; and
- questionnaires.<sup>7</sup>

In this study the researcher used documentation (as partly covered in the earlier chapters), interviews and questionnaire techniques. The research did not use observation techniques, because in the present project there was nothing to observe, as the researcher was concerned with attitudes and opinions of respondents. The next section will describe the interview and questionnaire techniques which were selected.

### **5.3. INTERVIEWS**

Welch and Comer define interviewing as the method of collecting data from respondents face to face by asking questions.<sup>8</sup> At first sight this may seem a straightforward matter in that the respondents are expected to give straight answers to the questions asked. In fact data collected in interviews can include non-verbal information by for example observing the manner of speech and silence, which may be an indication of how accurate and sincere the respondent is. The face-to-face interviews in the present study, however, were aimed simply to obtain information from the statements of the respondents. Interviews are a better method for collecting in-depth information than by questionnaire. As Awiria says “verbatim transcripts of interviews are undoubtedly full of unexpected revelations, diversions and stories that



an interested listener may encourage.”<sup>9</sup> One value of the interview therefore is that the person being studied can describe the situation much more deeply and confess his own feelings.

Another advantage of the interview technique is that it can permit the establishment of rapport between the interviewer and respondent, therefore stimulating the respondent to give more complete and valid answers. Properly conducted interviews permit the interviewer to help the respondent clarify his thinking on a given point, so that a correct answer is gained. Asabab has pointed out that the open answer interview method would give the respondent more time to speak, dig deep and feel free to answer the questions fully.<sup>10</sup> Rubin and Rubin note that an interview “helps the researcher to understand what the person thinks and ground the answers in his/her experience to give the researcher nuances, precision, context and evidence at the same time.”<sup>11</sup> The researcher felt that to use the interview technique would help encourage the interviewees to give frank, clear and extensive answers to the questions and hopefully contribute to obtaining more reliable data.

The interview technique also enables a respondent’s confusion to be detected so that questions can be reworded and meaningful answers elicited. In the study, ‘Recent Experience with Problems of Labour Force Measurement’, Bancroft and Welch show that respondents answer questions about their labour force status in terms of what they consider to be their major activity rather than responding to the actual wording of the questions.<sup>12</sup> The authors quote the example:

“even if they were working part time, people who considered themselves primarily students or housewives answered ‘No’ to the question ‘Did you do any work last week for pay or profit?’ A substantial improvement in the validity of employment estimates was attained by accepting the respondents’ frame of reference and building a sequence of questions which first asked for their major activity and then asked students and housewives whether they were also doing any paid work.”<sup>13</sup>

The interview technique was used in this study, therefore, specifically to obtain more data and to overcome the limitations of other methods used. There are of course disadvantages with the interview technique. The greatest disadvantage is that the



interviewer's very presence can affect the responses he gets. The fact that, as Awiria stresses:

“the interviewer is allowed to vary his approach to fit the occasion is likely not only to complicate the interpretation of results but, even more seriously, to project his personality into the situation and thus influence, by means of intonation and emphasis, gestures, facial expressions and various subtle cues, the responses he receives.”<sup>14</sup>

Another disadvantage of interviewing as a research technique is cost. Not only can it be expensive, especially when the survey covers a wide geographical area, but it is also costly in time and effort since it almost invariably necessitates call-backs, long waits (for example when the respondent is busy with other matters) and travel. Also a busy person may prefer to fill out a questionnaire at his leisure rather than submit to an interview. However, as the present study was focused in a specific locality, the problems associated with cost were minimal.

Many social scientists have argued that even though interviews have disadvantages, they are often the only way the researcher can collect the information needed in a short period of time. A number of ways to improve the quality of information obtained by use of interviews technique have been suggested by Asabab:

- “the researcher should prepare himself in advance by reading as much as he can about the interview questions he is using;
- the researcher should discuss the task with as many different kinds of people as possible, particularly researchers in different institutions;
- the researcher should respect the confidentiality of the information provided by participants, by not disclosing their names in the final report;
- the researcher should ask the people who are interviewed for a copy of the documents, correspondence or reports that they mention in their discussions; and
- the researcher should ask interviewees if there are any other people whom they believe should be interviewed.”<sup>15</sup>

The interview instrument for the present study was developed with these views in mind. The researcher employed a structured interview technique (as opposed to an unstructured or semi-structured one), to enable the answers to be compared, contrasted and analysed in greater depth.



### **5.3.1. STEPS TAKEN TO PRODUCE INTERVIEW TOOLS**

The first step taken was to develop the interview questions in English, thereafter they were translated into Arabic. Next, the researcher gave a copy to other practitioners of translation in the UK, to help compare the English and the Arabic copies. This was to ensure that there were no significant differences between the two copies. Then, the researcher received an official letter from his own (Imam) university, which included some background information about the subject and the aims of his research with a view to encouraging the interviewees to help the researcher.

In the next step the researcher initiated the interviews by:

- introducing himself and giving the name of his university;
- presenting his identity card during the visit;
- describing the purpose of the study;
- stressing that the name and position of the interviewee would not be revealed, and would not be mentioned in reference to the information used in the final analysis;
- giving a brief explanation of how the respondents were selected for the interview; and
- emphasising to the respondents that all the information would be handled confidentially and for research use only, without mentioning any names or giving them to any other organisation.

Finally, the researcher asked the respondents the questions while recording the answers in order to give the respondents the chance to speak freely without waiting for the researcher to write down their responses. On occasions there was not sufficient time to finish the questions, therefore the researcher would ask the respondents to give him another appointment to complete the interview. All interviewees who were asked for a second interview in order to complete the questioning readily agreed. The helpfulness of the respondents allowed the researcher to gain valuable information.



### **5.3.2. AREA OF STUDY AND SAMPLE RESPONDENTS**

The field study was conducted in Saudi Arabia, mainly in Assir region, between the months of May and July 1995. The interviews were conducted with 19 people from the upper management category in the administrative system, in different public institutions in the Assir region, as follows:

1. The Head of the Civil Service Bureau, Assir branch;
2. The Head of the Ministry of Planning, Assir branch;
3. The Head of the Education Department in Assir (Male Education);
4. The Head of King Saud University, Assir branch;
5. The Head of Imam Mohammed bin Saud Islamic University, Assir branch;
6. The Deputy Dean of the Faculty of Medicine, King Saud University, in Abha;
7. The Dean of the Faculty of Arabic Language and Social Sciences, Imam University, Assir Branch;
8. The Head of Teachers' Affairs in the Education Department in Assir (Male Education);
9. The Head of the General Hospital for Females and Maternity in Assir region;
10. The former Manager of General Hospital for Female and Maternity in Assir Region;
11. The Head of Assir Central Hospital;
12. The Head of Personnel Affairs in the General Department of Assir Health Affairs;
13. The Head of the Personnel Affairs in Imam University, Assir branch;
14. The Deputy Dean of the Faculty of Arabic Language and Social Sciences in Abha (Imam University);
15. The former Manager of Imam Mohammed bin Saud Islamic University;
16. The Head of the Statistics Department in Assir;
17. The Manager of Recruitment Department in the Civil Service Bureau, Assir branch;
18. The Former Manager of the Department of Girls' Colleges in Assir region; and
19. The Secretary of the Commercial and Industrial Chamber in the region.;



#### **5.4. QUESTIONNAIRE**

As already noted above, a questionnaire was also used in this study. Arkan states that a questionnaire “is, by definition, an instrument for gathering structured information from people.”<sup>17</sup> Similarly, Cohen and Manion argue that a questionnaire is a list of questions by which information is sought from a selected group.<sup>18</sup>

The questionnaire technique is a particularly quick method of conducting a study. Cohen and Manion state that a questionnaire takes little time to send out and even the bulk of the returns can be received in a short time.<sup>19</sup> The researcher needed a reasonably large amount of data to achieve success, yet had limited time. Therefore, the questionnaire technique was deemed useful.

In addition, it has to be noted that another reason for the use of the questionnaire in this study was that since the sample was large there was insufficient time for all the sample to be interviewed. As Phillips stresses, “it would take a researcher years to interview thousands of individuals.”<sup>20</sup> Further, the questionnaire method was used in the present study because it has been commonly used by scholars in this kind of analysis and has in the past produced sufficiently accurate data.

There are, however, a number of problems in using the questionnaire method. The first difficulty, is that the answers to questionnaires may have to be accepted as final. There is no opportunity to probe beyond the given answer to a particular question to clarify an ambiguous answer or to overcome unwillingness to answer a particular question. Other limitations of questionnaire technique commonly reported include the following:

- the researcher can not be sure that the correct person has completed the questionnaire;
- major expense problems can be incurred especially if a large number of questionnaires require to be printed and posted; and
- returns can be limited depending on the interest of the respondents.<sup>21</sup>



It should be noted that these problems depend on specific conditions, for example respondents completing the questionnaires on their own rather than in a room supervised by the researcher.

In general, the researcher recognised that these aspects of the questionnaire can harm research data, therefore in this study a number of measures were taken to minimise these problems. The measures were taken at different stages. First, in designing the questionnaire it was necessary to:

- use simple language, to be understandable;
- use straightforward vocabulary;
- avoid long questions; and
- avoid ambiguous questions.

After the researcher finished the design of the questionnaire, he translated it from English into Arabic and the translation was shown to a number of Arab PhD students at Durham in the field of linguistics, to make sure the Arabic copy was similar to the English. The researcher listened to their responses, comments and advice, and made adaptations to avoid any vague and incomprehensible questions.

Secondly, the researcher informed the students that all their answers would be used for the sake of the research alone, in order to avoid any serious problems. This step was necessary to ensure that respondents had no fear that anything would happen to them as a result of filling in the questionnaire. Therefore, the names of the respondents were kept anonymous.

De Vaus points out that:

“it is wise to assess the reliability and validity of indicators before carrying out the actual study. This is called pilot testing and is done by administering the questions to a similar but smaller sample to that to be used in the actual study.”<sup>22</sup>

Therefore to ensure that the data obtained from the questionnaire was valid and reliable, the researcher conducted a pilot study in Saudi Arabia to obtain a satisfactory result, and to check any items which were not compatible with the study.



Belson notes that “for a measuring technique to be of any use in survey research, it must produce results that are sufficiently accurate and relevant for the operation in hand. In other words, the measure must be sufficiently valid.”<sup>23</sup> His concern is about validity and he emphasises that validity should not be confused with reliability. Belson argues that reliability is a concept that is based on the false assumption that a reliable survey will produce the same results each time, a scenario which Belson logically proves wrong. These points were noted and considered by the researcher.

#### **5.4.1. PILOT STUDY**

As noted earlier a pilot study was used in the process of preparing the questionnaire. The major reason why a pilot study was favoured was in order to improve the quality of the questionnaire instrument and to ensure the provision of the kind of information for which the researcher was looking. Al-Asaf states that working out the result of the pilot study can inform the researcher whether all the necessary information needed will be gathered from the replies; and that it can give some indication of the result to be expected from the main study.<sup>24</sup>

A pilot study, it was felt, would give the researcher good feedback about the instrument. The central point was to understand the questions which the students could answer without difficulty and identify those questions which they might find difficult to answer. As Morrison states, “the heart of the problem is that different respondents interpret the same words differently.”<sup>25</sup> Furthermore, the pilot study was conducted to check the linguistic aspects; the length of the instrument; the ordering and sequencing of the questions; to achieve a reduction in the non-response rate; to clarify the statistical approach to be used; and to understand what data processing arrangements the main study would require. In short, the researcher’s task at this stage of the study was to identify and correct errors before conducting the main study. In view of these important points the researcher conducted a pilot study in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia with a small sample of forty university students.

In general, the pilot study proved helpful in that it defined a number of problems, such as wording, and the significance of some questions. As a result of the pilot study, the



questionnaire was amended before carrying out the main study. For example, some phrases were changed; some sentences re-written; and questions which were not clear were removed.

#### **5.4.2. THE POPULATION AND SAMPLE**

In this section the sample size of the main survey is discussed. It is crucial to define the target population to ensure that the sample should reflect the population. De Vaus states:

“one way of finding out about a group of people is to collect information from everyone in the group. For large groups of people this is prohibitively expensive and impractical. The alternative is to collect information from only some people in the group in such a way that their responses and characteristics reflect those of the group from which they are drawn. This procedure is much cheaper, faster and easier than surveying all members of a group. This is the principle of sampling.”<sup>25</sup>

The target population of this study consisted of all the students from the last year of the university system in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia. Owing to the difficulty in studying the whole of the target population and the limits on the time available, the researcher decided to select the two branches of universities in Abha. These had a total number of students of 12,000, of which there were approximately 700 final year students. The researcher selected Abha for reasons of access, convenience, and his relationship with many of the teachers involved.

The next problem was to decide what method of sampling was to be used. There are two methods of sampling: “One yields probability samples in which, as the term implies, the probabilities of selection of each respondents is known. The other yields non-probability samples in which the probability of selection is unknown.”<sup>26</sup> Within the two main types of sampling there are several sub-types of sampling. As Morrison points out:

“there are several types of probability samples: simple random samples; systematic samples; stratified samples; cluster samples; stage sample and multi-phase samples. They all have a measure of randomness built into them and therefore a level of generalisability.”<sup>27</sup>



As the survey was conducted to establish the attitudes of final year students to various aspects of employment in Saudi Arabia and the university system is similar throughout the Kingdom, a case study in one region, Assir, was chosen as the most appropriate method. Because of the homogeneity of the culture, tradition, tribal life style and religion, this technique would allow the results obtained to be generalised for final year students throughout Saudi Arabia.

The size of the sample which was defined according to the principles used by Krijcie and Morgan required a minimum of 291 students.<sup>28</sup> However the researcher exceeded this number in order to gain greater confidence in the representativeness of the sample. Stratification was unnecessary at this stage because there were no major differences between students in terms of their educational and cultural background. Furthermore, the vast majority of students were from a similar socio-economic status. The large size of the sample with 574 replies would have overcome any differences, if they had existed.

The sample had to be broken down among the four colleges chosen. This step was achieved by allocating questionnaires in proportion to the number of students at each college. The breakdown is shown in table 5.1.

**Table 5.1 Returned Questionnaires by College**

College	Total Respondents	% of total
Islamic Law College	183	31.9
Arabic Language College	196	34.4
Education College	156	27.4
Medical College	36	6.3

#### **5.4.3. THE FIELDWORK FOR THE QUESTIONNAIRE**

The fieldwork for the questionnaire was conducted in Saudi Arabia, starting from the 20th May 1995 and continuing for three months. The sequence of the fieldwork proceeded as follows:

- all the questionnaires were prepared and printed, together with a covering letter from the researcher's university and a letter from the researcher to the students



explaining how to answer the questions, what the aims of the study were and the background of the researcher;

- a letter of request from the researcher's sponsor to King Saud University in Abha to gain permission for the study to be conducted in their college was sent;
- permission was received to conduct the study;
- the researcher distributed the questionnaires to the students in their colleges; and
- the researcher collected the 574 questionnaires from the four colleges.

#### **5.4.4. MEASUREMENT LEVEL**

Welch and Comer state:

“there are different levels of measurement with which the researcher has to deal. Unlike the natural sciences, measurement in social sciences and policy research is frequently not in physical units, such as meters or grams or hours, but rather in cruder categories. Measurement levels called nominal, ordinal, interval, and ratio. It is important to understand the limitations of each level because each level warrants a different type of statistical technique.....Nominal - classifies only. Ordinal - classifies, and orders ‘more than or less than’. Interval - classifies, orders, and assumes a fixed interval. Ratio - classifies, orders, assumes fixed interval, and has an absolute.”<sup>30</sup>

The researcher used the nominal level to measure the majority of the data. However, three questions (nos. 14, 15 and 17. see appendix 2) involved the ordering of responses. In these cases it was necessary to use the ordinal level of measurement.

#### **5.4.5. DATA ANALYSIS**

The researcher used the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) to collate the data, after coding and ranking the replies to the questionnaires. Descriptive statistics are used in the analysis of the questionnaire in chapters seven, eight and nine. The results of the questionnaire are presented in two styles of tables. The first presents the data for one question in terms of the number of responses, percentage of responses and, on occasions, valid percentage of responses. The second type of table uses cross-tabulation, where the results of two questions are analysed in relation to each other.



The majority of the first type of tables use two main statistical columns. The first column lists the number of responses to each of the variables offered as responses by the students. This column normally totals 574, the total number of questionnaires, but on occasions where the question is a follow-up to a smaller number of respondents highlighted by a previous question, this number is less, for example question seven. The second main statistical column highlights the percentage of each response to the total, including 'answer omitted.' For an unknown reason, not all the students answered each question and although the numbers are usually only a small percentage this has necessitated the use of an 'answer omitted' row. However, the numbers of answers omitted was not large enough to invalidate the data. In certain cases, where this number accounted for more than 3% of the responses a third column is added, entitled 'valid percentage'. This column presents the percentage of each variable without considering the 'answers omitted' row.

The second type of data presentation tables used are cross-tabulations. Cross-tabulation is a method by which it is possible "to see whether two variables are related....Two variables are said to be ... related when the distribution of values on one variable differs for different values of the other."<sup>30</sup> If a relationship can be deduced from the data presented in a cross-tabulation table then the results can be used to predict general behaviour from the limited sample. Therefore, this tool of analysis is of great assistance in analysing the results of the questionnaire. The cross-tabulation tables break down the answers in more detail, combining together to two separate questions. For example, the choice of subject is related to the type of secondary school attended, in an effort to understand which schools produce those students who study the natural sciences. The data is presented in percentage form, with the final row being an average. The presentation of data as a percentage conveyed deviations or variations which could be investigated. The probable reasons for each variance are discussed and the effects on the Saudization policies are noted. In turn, the analysis allows the researcher to make recommendations which will enable a more accurate focus for future manpower plans.

A number of other statistical terms are used throughout chapters seven, eight and nine. These terms are defined below, and their use in this study explained.



**Mode:** this is the most commonly observed value in a set of data.<sup>32</sup> When appropriate the mode will be indicated at the bottom of the table.

**Median:** when the observations are arranged in order of magnitude from the lowest to highest, the middle value is known as median.<sup>33</sup> If there is an even number of items, then the median is generally considered to be the value midway between the two middle observed values.<sup>34</sup> Again, when appropriate the median figure will be noted.

### **5.5. DIFFICULTIES ENCOUNTERED DURING THE FIELDWORK**

In this section of the chapter the researcher notes the major difficulties faced during the field study. These were:

- problems were experienced in arranging meetings with managers to conduct interviews. Therefore the researcher had to visit some organisations many times before obtaining an appointment to interview the respondent;
- often the interviewees were unable to provide all the information required;
- the poor administrative system made access to and identification of relevant statistical data very onerous; it was very difficult to find appropriate data on population, age, births, deaths, and the numbers of Saudi and non-Saudi employees. Even in Riyadh, when meeting with officials of the Statistical Department of Ministry of Finance, it proved very arduous to obtain the relevant data;
- problems with bureaucratic procedures presented time problems when dealing with official bodies;
- there was an unwillingness to release any sensitive information: information given tended to be very general in its nature;
- it proved necessary to travel to Riyadh and Jeddah many times, despite the distances involved and the cost; and
- another constraint was the lack of written material on the Assir region: most of the data had to be discovered at first hand.



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## ENDNOTES

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- <sup>26</sup> Cohen, L., and Manion, L., *op.cit.*, p.87.
- <sup>27</sup> Morrison, K., *op.cit.*, p.117.
- <sup>28</sup> Morrison, K., *op.cit.*, p.116.
- <sup>29</sup> Welch, S. and Comer, C., *op.cit.*, pp.34-37.
- <sup>30</sup> De Vaus, D.A., *op.cit.*, p.154.
- <sup>31</sup> Matlack, W.F., Statistics for Public Policy and Management, (Boston: Duxbury Press, 1980), p.35.
- <sup>32</sup> *Ibid.*, p.35.
- <sup>33</sup> *Ibid.*, p.35.



## **CHAPTER SIX**

### **THE INTERVIEWS**

#### **6.1. INTRODUCTION**

##### **6.1.1. PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF INTERVIEW DATA**

Interviews were conducted to explore the respondents' views about manpower needs and development in the light of Saudization. As will be shown below, the findings from the interviews are interesting, in that they provide some evidence of the perception of Saudi policy-makers regarding the problems related to Saudization. The questionnaire which comprised fifteen questions was divided into two main sections. The first contained fourteen questions which were addressed to all the interviewees. The second section contained just one question which was only posed to the head of the Civil Service in Assir. At the end of each interview the people involved were asked if they had any further comments or suggestions that were relevant to the research.

It should be noted that some respondents offered a variety of comments in response to a question: this meant that it was not useful to calculate the data quantitatively. Each question is analysed separately following a set pattern. Firstly, the question is highlighted, then the aim behind asking the question is discussed. Thirdly, the key comments elucidated by the interviewees are listed. Next a summary of the responses is provided, before the data is analysed. Finally the analysis is integrated with the secondary literature which was reviewed in the earlier chapters.

##### **6.1.2. ADMINISTRATION OF THE INTERVIEWS**

It is worth noting here the character and the process of administration of the interviews. It should be noted that all nineteen interviews were conducted and recorded by the researcher. The time spent on interviews depended on the nature and position of the individual interviewee, as well as by the contribution they could make to



the research based on their knowledge and willingness to provide information. The maximum time spent on any interview was two hours.

## **6.2. INTERVIEW DATA: SECTION ONE**

### **QUESTION ONE: “WHAT IS YOUR OPINION OF THE SAUDIZATION PROGRAMME WHICH THE GOVERNMENT IS TRYING TO APPLY?”**

This question was designed to gauge reactions of the respondents to the Saudization programme. Among the comments made by respondents, the following were of particular importance.

- “Saudization is a slow process”
- “We should keep the highly skilled expatriates due to our own development needs, until we prepare qualified people.”
- “We should work hard to take advantage of any chance to replace non-Saudis with qualified Saudis.”
- “To approach the Saudization goal, we should go back to the education sector and reform it, so as it produce skilled people for the country’s development needs with specific regard to vocational and technical skills.”
- “The first condition is to have qualified Saudis, and the best way to achieve this is to give the Saudi workers good training and the appropriate motivation.”
- “Through good planning, Saudization can reach its aim.”
- “To implement this policy all the organisations should work together to tackle this problem which has deep roots and we should not blame one organisation and ignore the others.”
- “We must make the public aware of this issue so as to help the government solve it: the approach could be carried forward through TV, magazines, newspapers, seminars and other media channel.”

As can be seen, the respondents were clearly well informed on Saudization policy and most of them indicated that they accepted the principles of the policy. It is clear from



the data that Saudization has received public recognition, at least among managers in the public sector. The respondents have provided information on the way to put the policies into practice: they have not raised any kind of objection, complaint or opposition to the government policy of Saudization. In other words among the respondents Saudization has received a great deal of support. The concern to promote Saudization as expressed by the interviewees is clearly in line with the government's policies. As Schotta describes:

“one factor that causes concern is the labour market, specifically the historic dependence on foreign workers in technical management and unskilled positions... The Saudi government has stressed Saudization of the workforce for a long time.”<sup>1</sup>

Although the interviewees recognised the importance of Saudization they identified several problems with its implementation. One major problem which the respondents highlighted in the Saudization programme were inadequacies in education and training. The point they stressed was that the existing education and training programmes in Saudi Arabia were not appropriate to produce sufficient skilled manpower to fulfil the objectives of the Saudization programme. The respondents also suggested that special attention should be paid to in-service training. Further, they suggested that the education institutions should give the people good skills and raise their effective and efficiency. Also, the interviewees indicated that the educational system needed to focus on VTE which the government required to cope with the development of the Saudi economy.

Another problem which was identified was a lack of integration between planning and education, particularly higher education, which in the respondent's opinions has resulted in a lack of strong support from the education institutions in terms of the implementation of Saudization programme. The successive five year plans, despite their recognition of the importance of education, have failed to recognise that the education institutions have not been giving sufficient attention to the production of students to replace the non-Saudis. As al-Qahtani argues:

“education has been the core of human resource development in all five-year plans of Saudi Arabia during the past 20 years, but these plans did not pay any attention to the quality and shortcomings of the educational system.”<sup>2</sup>



The respondents also emphasised the need for the public to be made fully aware of the need for, and the nature of, the Saudization programme. The media should, it was said, play a major role in explaining the Saudization programme to the indigenous people. This move would allow Saudis to become aware of their roles in the Saudization programme and how best they could co-operate with the government to solve this serious problem. These views are supported by Osama who has emphasised the overall failure of the media in the oil-producing countries of the Arabian peninsula (OPCAP):

“unfortunately the people who ought to be the end and the means of development are seldom aware of the problem of development or the role they are expected to play in solving this problem. They are hardly ever aware of any real development aims, since these aims are not clearly defined and are therefore unrecognisable. The education curricula and the media do not give a real picture of the situation: the past is drawn as bright, the portrayal of the present is mere propaganda and the future is hardly ever mentioned.”<sup>3</sup>

## **QUESTION TWO: “WHAT KIND AND LEVEL OF OCCUPATION DO THE NON-SAUDIS OCCUPY IN YOUR ORGANISATION?”**

The main aim of this question was to examine the respondents' perceptions of the level of the positions, whether senior or junior, held by non-Saudis in the workforce. Among the comments made by respondents, the following were of particular importance.

### **A. In respect of education jobs:**

- “In higher education they hold positions as university lecturers, assistant professors, associate professors, and full professors in all fields.”
- “In high school they hold high academic positions; particularly in mathematics, chemistry, physics, physical education and even Arabic language.”

### **B. In respect of health sector jobs:**

- “They are involved in hospitals nursing service.”
- “Many of them are the medical consultants.”
- “Many hold the position of senior medical doctors.”
- “They control the work of the X-ray and laboratory departments.”



### **C. In respect of jobs in other parts of the public sector:**

- “They hold senior positions in operational and technical maintenance sectors.”
- “They hold most of the senior positions in vocational and technical work.”

The respondents were aware that expatriate workers constitute a considerable percentage of the workforce in the education institutions and the health care services. The responses appear to indicate that the respondents focused on the non-Saudi workforce as holding mainly senior positions. They tend to place less emphasis on the lower positions within the public sector held by non-Saudi workers, whether in junior professional, technical, vocational and operational positions. Thus, in the education sector emphasis was placed on the role of non-Saudis at all levels of higher education, whereas at the primary and elementary levels little mention was made of the non-Saudis. Similarly, in the health sector prominence was given to non-Saudis in senior positions, while the technicians in x-ray and laboratory work were ignored.

The main point about the responses is that the respondents focused almost exclusively on those non-Saudis in senior positions, not on the large numbers in the low-level and manual positions. Yet the number of low level foreign workers is considerable in the public sector. Chapman notes “the chronic shortage of manpower at all level.”<sup>4</sup> He continues “the most desperate shortage is in skilled and professional workers, but there is also a shortage of semi-skilled workers.”<sup>5</sup> Cooper argues that 50% of the non-Saudi workforce are not skilled.<sup>6</sup> The emphasis of the interviewees on the senior positions held by non-Saudis is consistent with the general perception about the country’s need for skilled manpower, but not with the reality of the composition of the workforce.

As to why the respondents placed less emphasis on those non-Saudis in manual and junior professional positions, it may be argued that the respondents did not think that the manual workers present any potential threats or problems. However, the reality is that they do constitute a problem as regards overall Saudization. The implicit acceptance of the need for non-Saudi workers in the less ‘glamorous’ lower level positions does not meet the requirements of the Saudization programme, which is concerned with the replacement of non-Saudis at all levels.



It can be argued that the attitudes of respondents by neglecting to give attention to the non-Saudis working at lower level make Saudization more difficult to achieve. This attitude constrains the scope of the programme, slowing down its implementation.

One of the difficulties which the respondents associated with this issue is the lack of qualified Saudis. They argued that there appeared to be no qualified Saudis to replace the foreign workers. Thus to meet the demands of the Saudization programme, as was indicated by the interviewees, there would need to be an examination of the role of higher education. However, to develop a skilled labour force requires time, which by necessity leads to a delay in the implementation of the manpower plan.

### **QUESTION THREE: “DO YOU THINK THERE ARE MORE FOREIGN WORKERS IN THE PUBLIC SECTOR THAN ARE REQUIRED TO FULFIL THE COUNTRY’S DEVELOPMENT NEEDS?”**

The aim of this question was to understand views of the respondents on the size of the foreign workforce in the public sector. Among the comments made by the respondents, the following were of particular importance.

- “There is a greater foreign labour force than we need. The interesting thing, however, is that in some organisations we have too many foreigners and not enough Saudis, while in the other organisations we lack the foreign labour force - I mean we have too few.”
- “Yes; indeed, there are many foreigners, but I think the development plan needs them. As you may know, there are no Saudis skilled enough to take-over these positions.”
- “No, I do not think there are more than we need, they are necessary for the development and implementation of this country’s development plan.”
- “As a result of what is expected of the government service by the people, I think this country needs foreign labour to fill the jobs which we cannot fill with our own people. Since our people do not have the skills, I think, therefore, the expatriate workers are necessary.”



- “I think it is our huge development plan which opens the way for foreigners to work in this country.”
- “In some occupations, the government needs more foreign workers so as to meet our demand. The point is that Saudis cannot meet the demand, such as in the medical service for doctors and nurses. As you may know, we still have problems in the medical services and with science teachers: medical services are still very low, which is not to the Kingdom’s satisfaction. Also the Faculty of Medicine does not produce enough physicians. I think it will take 40 years at most for the government to replace the non-Saudi workforce. They may do it more successfully if and only if they change the policy and environment of our colleges.”

A number of relevant points were raised during the interviews. The respondents accepted that there are a very large number of foreign workers in the country. Secondly, the respondents did not generally consider the number as being more than the present requirements needed to implement the development plan. Thirdly, as with the previous question, the justification for the need for the large scale foreign workforce was based on the perception that the present Saudi workforce lacks the skills and training for economic development. From the replies, the most important point that arises is once again the stress placed by the interviewees on the skilled foreign worker. As discussed in section 2.2, the failure to acknowledge the position of the unskilled foreign workers acts as a break on the Saudization programme.

The second major conclusion raised by the analysis of this question is that the present size of the foreign workforce is deemed necessary by the respondents due to the lack of skilled and trained Saudi nationals. This is in agreement with Alaki’s<sup>7</sup> view that Saudi Arabia can not develop without dependence on foreign skilled workers. It requires the manpower planners to concentrate on identifying the immediate and short-term skills required for the development plan and to instigate a scheme for the education institutions to meet these needs.



**QUESTION FOUR: “DO YOU THINK THE NUMBER OF FOREIGNERS WILL INCREASE OR DECREASE IN THE KINGDOM, IN GENERAL, AND IN ASSIR, IN PARTICULAR, IN THE NEXT FIVE OR TEN YEARS?”**

The question was intended to find out whether the respondents believed that the foreign workforce would decrease as a result of Saudization. Among the comments made by respondents, the following were of particular importance.

- “Decreasing the number of foreign workers will depend on the output of our universities and other education institutions in the Kingdom.”
- “The future number of foreigners will depend on economic growth. If the economy continues to grow, then the foreign work force will also increase.”
- “The number of the foreigners in the workforce will continue to increase in some occupations, especially technical work, vocational work, and manual work.”
- “The number of foreign workers may remain as it is now.”
- “It may be that even if the Kingdom’s economy continues to grow there could be no increase in the number of foreign workers because there are enough of them at the moment in the Kingdom.”
- “The number of foreign workers will continue to increase in all parts of the country and the region of Assir in particular, because the people of the Kingdom look for only easy and skilled jobs. They do not like vocational or technical jobs. The problem comes from Saudi students preferring to study arts subjects. They do not feel any incentive to confront problems in scientific areas.”

The major points highlighted by the response of the interviewees to this question include the fact that not one of the respondents thought that the number of foreign workers in Saudi Arabia will decrease: indeed the majority of the respondents believed that the numbers would increase. Secondly, the reason put forward for the potential increase was the lack of skilled Saudis. This is related to the third finding that there is a lack of co-ordination between available skills and the development plans. A fourth point raised was that of the situation relating to the shortfall of Saudi nationals in the



vocational and technical sectors. This fact was attributed to the preference of Saudi students to study arts subjects.

In terms of the Saudization programme the responses to this question will be disappointing to the manpower planners. However, although the interviewees forecast an increase in numbers of foreign workers it may be that their growth rate could be slowed. Furthermore, the foreign workforce may actually decrease as a percentage of the overall workforce. If these trends were achieved then the chances of the long term success of the Saudization plan would be boosted.

The findings on this question are consistent with the literature. For example, the recent study for the Institute of Public Administration (IPA) in Riyadh conducted by al-Ghaith and al-Mashugh entitled 'The Recruitment of the National People' concludes that the foreign workers will continue to increase in the future, even if all available Saudis are employed. According to this study, no change is possible to decrease the numbers of foreign workers. The authors assert that the number of foreign workers by the end of the Sixth Development Plan (1996-2000) will be 7,059,400; yet it was approximately 6.3 million during the Fifth Development Plan (1990-1995). Of this number there would be 827,200 foreigners working in the public sector, which represents an increase over the 600,330 foreign workers in the public sector at the end of the Fifth Development Plan.<sup>8</sup>

**QUESTION FIVE: "DO YOU THINK THE TRAINING PROGRAMMES WHICH ARE HELD BY THE INSTITUTE OF PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION AND SOME INSTITUTIONS ASSOCIATED WITH DIFFERENT MINISTRIES COULD IMPROVE THE PERFORMANCE OF THE EMPLOYEES IN THE PUBLIC SECTOR? ALSO COULD THESE PROGRAMMES HELP THE GOVERNMENT TO IMPLEMENT THE IDEA OF SAUDIZATION, AND IF SO, HOW?"**

The main aim of this particular question was to determine the contribution of the Institute of Public Administration, and other specialist institutions in the Kingdom to



the Saudization policy. Among comments made by the respondents, the following were of particular importance.

- “The people do not take these training programmes very seriously, nor do they think seriously about the promotion they could get as a result of attending these programmes.”
- “There is a structural weakness, due to the fact that these training programmes only train people in ‘administration’; they do not deal with technical or vocational training. Furthermore, the Institute of Public Administration should be instructed to take the Kingdom’s development needs into account and the institutions should establish links with the Ministry of Development Planning.”
- “All these training programmes are just theoretical in that they are held far from the environment and the nature of the jobs.”
- “These training programmes are still in their infancy and they need more work to reach their aims and what is expected of them.”
- “These training programmes should be held inside the organisation, or close to the real organisation environment.”
- “Each of the institutions and organisations should have its own training programme and in so doing could help the government to replace the non-Saudi work force with Saudi people.”
- “These training programmes run by the institutions would not help the government to implement the Saudization because they are mainly theoretical.”

The main point to note from this data is that the respondents believe that the IPA and other administrative training institutions are not particularly improving the performance of the Saudi nationals in the public sector. The training programmes are not perceived to be helping the government to implement the Saudization programme. A number of reasons were put forward by the interviewees for the shortcomings of the training programmes. The reasons fall into three categories: the content and delivery of the courses; the attitudes of those involved with the training; and the relationship between the training and the development and Saudization plans.



The problems highlighted by the interviewees which concerned the content and delivery of the training included the belief that the courses were too theoretical and did not match the practical needs of working in the public sector. Related to this complaint was the point that the training was too general and not sufficiently job-specific. This, in turn, links with the third point, that the delivery of the courses should be where the trainees actually work not at a distant institution. Finally the courses were considered to be too narrow in scope dealing only with administration.

The second category is considered to be the attitudes of those involved in the programmes. The respondents felt that the trainees did not take the courses seriously, nor did they consider the personal and social benefits that would be forthcoming from the training. In the experience of the researcher the courses are treated as breaks from the official jobs. Furthermore on their return those trained are not encouraged to put their training into practice nor is there any evaluation by the IPA or the Civil Service.

The final category is related to the positioning of these courses within both the development plan and the Saudization programme, with the interviewees questioning whether these plans were integrated effectively.

From these points it is apparent that several issues require to be addressed to make the training courses more effective in terms of the implementation of the Saudization programme. These issues include the necessity to liaise more closely with the needs of the public sector departments, and to widen the programmes to include more than administration. The training should be delivered on the premises of the trainees, with the trainees given encouragement to implement what they have learnt. This should be backed by evaluation of future performance. The increased attention to the trainee ought to help change the attitudes to the courses by both the trainers and the students. However, for the training to be fully effective in terms of the Saudization plan it should be stressed this can be only achieved through the training institutions framing programmes relevant to government objectives.



The findings of the study support Bukhary who argues:

“In-service administration training has been expanded and its focuses and activities broadened, but its philosophy and objectives are not yet well defined and oriented toward national development.....There is lack of adequate communication among many government agencies and with both the commission and the Institute concerning the planning needs, selection of trainees, and evaluation of the impact of training.....The selection of public employees to attend in-service training, and the assessment of their training needs in order to nominate them for the appropriate training programs tend to be an ad hoc, agency-based process that may vary from one government agency to another.... Despite the increasing number of graduates and the expanded in-service focus of training activities, no comprehensive evaluation efforts were made to assess the impact of training on the productivity and efficiency of government agencies.....The content is primarily information and theory oriented. The method of training utilised mostly the classroom lecture which is most appropriate for knowledge and information presentation.”<sup>9</sup>

#### **QUESTION SIX: “WHY DO THE SAUDI STUDENTS PREFER TO STUDY HUMANITIES AND ARTS RATHER THAN SCIENCE SUBJECTS?”**

This question aimed to explore the perceptions of the interviewees about the attitudes of the young towards the humanities, the arts and the natural sciences. The question was asked because Saudization would seem to be more dependent on the training of Saudis in science than in humanities/arts. Mention should be made that, logically, the material presented here follows on from, but this was not realised at the time when the questions were constructed.

Among the comments made by respondents, the following were of particular importance.

- “The humanities and art subjects are easier to study than science subjects.”
- “The period to study science is a very long one, and no-one would like to study for a long time in school.”



- “The education system provides better learning conditions for the humanities and art subjects than for science subjects in the higher school. It is in part for this reason that after high school the students prefer to study humanities and art subjects.”
- “Students choose humanities and art subjects because of the family’s desire socially related factors and through not consulting other people when making choice of subject.”
- “The grade required to study science subjects such as medicine are higher than for arts subjects. The grade level to read medicine, for example is 90%. It is this policy which in part forces students to find another subject to study - a subject which requires a slightly lower grade for entry.”
- “The students who hold arts and humanities degrees would get a better choice of job.”
- “The education system in Saudi Arabia is not capable of giving the students good information on the necessity to study science subjects. The education system encourages students to memorise and does not teach them how to think, therefore the majority of the students prefer to study humanities and arts so that they could memorise the reasons.”

According to the data presented above the reasons given for young Saudi Arabians tending to study the humanities and arts is wide ranging. These reasons can be classified into three categories, namely personal, social and systemic. The personal factors include the idea that the natural science courses are harder than the humanities courses. Furthermore, the time required for the natural sciences are considered to be too long. The social reasons which were put forward include family preference and cultural factors. Finally the systemic factors included better conditions due to more resources for the study of the humanities/social sciences; higher grades needed for the natural sciences; a wider range of job options for the humanities students; and a lack of information on choice and career being available.

The view that there is an imbalance between the number of students enrolled in the humanities/social sciences in comparison with the natural sciences in the secondary schools throughout the Gulf states is expressed by Osama:



“University graduates do not fulfil the actual need, as on one side there is a very small number of graduates in highly specialised technical professional fields, and on the other side a surplus of specialised graduates. Such an imbalance is obvious in Saudi Arabia where the graduates from Arabic and Islamic ‘Sharia’ law specialisation comprised nearly half the number of the graduates of all Saudi universities....70 per cent of the candidates graduated from most of the colleges are in the humanities and social sciences and, therefore, educational policies should be properly guided and related to development requirements.”<sup>10</sup>

The data from the interviews clearly suggests that according to the interviewees Saudi students have a negative attitude toward science subjects. Thus it can be argued that although education is expanding in Saudi Arabia, the wrong type of qualifications are being promoted, creating a major problem with a shortage of science students. It may be suggested that science subjects need extra encouragement and increased government attention. This theme will be expanded upon in the following chapters.

In order to correct the imbalance it is necessary to reduce the different conditions between the natural sciences and the humanities/social sciences. Secondly the social and cultural antipathy to the natural sciences must be overcome with a concerted campaign using all available channels of communication.

**QUESTION SEVEN: “DO YOU THINK THERE IS A DIFFERENCE BETWEEN THE PERFORMANCE OF NON-SAUDI WORKERS AND THE SAUDI WORKERS, AND IF THERE IS A DIFFERENCE, WHY AND AT WHAT LEVEL DOES THE DIFFERENCE EXIST?”**

This question was intended to explore the attitudes of the interviewees to any perceived differences in performance between non-Saudi and the Saudi workers; as well as establishing reasons for the differences. Among the comments made by respondents, the following were of particular importance.

- “Foreign workers were more effective than Saudis workers.”
- “Family responsibilities and social relationships cause the Saudis to be less productive.”



- “The Saudi workers do not care about what happens if they do not work well.”
- “The managers do not have enough power to force Saudi workers to be more productive.”
- “The non-Saudi workers give more attention to their work than Saudi people, and this is because if they do not work well, the head of the organisation can send them back to their own country.”
- “The Saudi workers have many chances to work while the non-Saudi workers have only the chance that they have got.”
- “The non-Saudi workforce have more experience than the Saudis.”
- “Saudi workers could be more productive than the non-Saudis if they get proper education and good training, specifically those who are in executive positions.”
- “The non-Saudis occupy many positions at all levels in the following occupations and this is because they are professionally trained in the areas, or are specialists, such that they are able to perform well:
  - A. Nursing work
  - B. Technical work
  - C. Vocational work
  - D. Secretarial work
  - E. Almost all middle management work.”
- “In management positions (executives, managers) Saudis are more productive than non-Saudis.”

In summary, the interviewees thought that non-Saudis were more effective than Saudi workers. However, almost one-third thought that Saudi Arabians would be able to be more productive than non-Saudis if the correct education and training was received. Interestingly, a number of the respondents argued that the Saudi Arabians who had achieved the positions of managers and executives were more productive than their non-Saudi counterparts.

The reasons put forward for the better performance of non-Saudis can again be broken down into personal, societal and systemic categories. The personal reasons included the lack of experience, proper education and professional training, as well as the



attitude towards work of the average Saudi Arabian. In the societal category was the pressure of the need to conform to the Saudi culture whereby family and tribal responsibilities are of paramount importance. The systemic reasons included the differences in the ability of managers to fire non Saudis but not Saudis, and the fact that many jobs were available to Saudis (such that they did not need to try hard to retain their existing employment).

These findings raise a number of problems to be addressed by the Saudization programme. Firstly there is the problem of lack of interest in and concern for work. The respondents said that some Saudis see themselves as having many conflicting responsibilities, such as family, work and tribal loyalties. This raises an interesting point: it appears to suggest that foreigners are more effective simply because they have no other activities outside their paid work. The family and tribal loyalties as perceived as an excuse for poor work performance. The researcher would argue that to blame outside activities would be wrong. Such an attitude should be controlled by the government through the recruitment system or by making it easier for managers to make unsuitable Saudi workers unemployed, as it represents a major weakness for the Saudi manpower.

The findings add further evidence of the existence of a skills and training gap which has not been addressed by the manpower plan. This gap, once again, suggests the need to integrate the development plans and the Saudization programme through existing institutions such as those in education sector.

The final outcome suggested by the analysis of this question is one which could create major problems for the attempts to introduce Saudization. If jobs are both guaranteed and plentiful for Saudi Arabians, then there is little incentive for the indigenous workers to be fully effective. This suggestion necessitates the need to address this problem by offering inducements to improve performance by, for example, productivity-related bonuses. It may be important also to ensure that those who fail to work effectively can not only be made unemployed, but given less chance to work in the public sector again.



## **QUESTION EIGHT: “WHAT IS THE BEST METHOD FOR THE GOVERNMENT TO ENCOURAGE STUDENTS TO ACCEPT WORK IN TECHNICAL AND VOCATIONAL OCCUPATIONS?”**

This question was intended to explore the methods which the government can apply to encourage students to accept work in technical and vocational occupations. Among the comments made by respondents, the following were of particular importance.

- “Create more motivation among the population to accept to work in this field, and the best motivational factors are material ones.”
- “Open more vocational and technical schools and intermediate colleges in all the main cities in the country so as to provide more opportunities for students to be trained in vocational/technical fields.”
- “Create new jobs for those who graduate from these vocational and technical institutions, because some of the graduates fail to find a job.”
- “Encourage the people to respect vocational/technical training through the TV, newspapers, etc.”
- “Use material incentives to offset the traditional values which prevent people from accepting vocational technical/ jobs.”
- “Change the vocational technical/ training which is provided, so as to give more emphasis to practical experience as against book learning.”
- “The education system should give science subjects more concern and attention.”

The findings from the interviews indicate that a number of solutions have been suggested. Firstly it was suggested that students should be given more motivation to study vocational and technical subjects. This would involve, in part, altering the attitudes of the Saudi Arabian population in general to vocational and technical work. Secondly the interviewees recognised the need for more training, but stressed that the training should be more practically-based. The provision of more training should in part, be achieved by increasing the number of institutions which offer courses in the vocational and technical sectors. Finally, there was a suggestion that more jobs should be provided in this sector because qualified Saudis had failed to obtain appropriate



jobs. However, this solution does not address the problem of how to get more students to study vocational and technical subjects and would merely increase the foreign penetration of this sector. What needs to be done is to find out the reasons why Saudi Arabians qualified in the vocational and technical fields have failed to find a employment.

There are three main points that have emerged from the interviews to help the government make the students accept work in vocational and technical occupations. The first is that it is necessary to adopt a motivational approach by providing material rewards and using the media to highlight the potential of good job opportunities in the vocational and technical occupations. Also, to some extent traditional attitudes still exist which mitigate against government efforts, to make students accept work in the vocational and technical sectors. Thus, traditional attitudes require to be replaced by favourable attitudes to the work in vocational and technical occupations.

The second point is that existing teaching methods lie at the centre of the problem. Theoretical aspects seem to dominate the course content, with almost no practical work on offer. Thus, it is particularly important for courses to be altered to offer immediate practical training to the students to help young Saudis accept vocational and technical training.

The third point on how to encourage Saudi students to accept work in vocational and technical occupations is by opening more training institutions. Thus, the students' lack of interest is seen by the interviewees to some extent as a results of the deficiency in the number of the institutions established. If more institutions were established the output of skilled vocational and technical workers could be increased. Indeed, the director-manager of the Public Enterprises of VTE in the Kingdom stated that in 1994 the institutions in the Kingdom accepted just 40% from those who applied to study vocational and technical subjects due to the lack of places in these institutions<sup>11</sup> - this at a time when the graduates from these institutions were still insufficient for the development needs.



In general, it can be seen that no single approach is sufficient. It is necessary to combine a number of policies to increase the number of qualified vocational and technical workers. A number of studies are in agreement with this finding. For example, al-Gharyeani and al-Auqla in their research conducted for the seminar held in the IPA entitled 'Manpower Planning in the Field of Technical and Vocational in the Public Sector: Problems and Solutions', have stated that in order to encourage Saudis to accept work in the vocational and technical fields within the public sector the relevant government agencies should implement the following practices:

- "establish a good propaganda programme about these fields through the media;
- change the names of vocational and technical occupations, i.e. to change the names to ones which would be attractive to people (for example, 'mechanical worker' instead of 'technician');
- give equal treatment in terms of salary, promotion and chances to obtain good training to graduates whether from the technical and vocational institutions or from universities.
- upgrade the training centres and institutions to polytechnic colleges; and
- establish co-operation between the training institutions and the colleges and universities in the Kingdom to give some of the students who graduate from the training institutions a chance to pursue their higher education."<sup>12</sup>

The Fifth Development Plan (1990-1995) itself recognised that there was a variety of means by which students could be encouraged to accept work in vocational occupations. It said the government should:

- support centres and training programmes for vocational and technical occupations;
- develop new training centres for both vocational and technical skills;
- lay emphasis on the employment of Saudis trained in technical skills; and
- develop an appropriate financial organisation to train more Saudis in the field of vocational and technical occupations.<sup>13</sup>

**QUESTION NINE: "DO YOU THINK THAT TRADITION PLAYS A MAJOR ROLE IN CAUSING THE SHORTAGE OF MANPOWER AND THE FAILURE TO ATTRACT STUDENTS TO ENROL IN THE VOCATIONAL AND TECHNICAL SCHOOLS?"**



This question was an attempt to explore evidence of the role which tradition plays in the shortage of manpower and student enrolment in the vocational and technical courses. Among the comments made by the respondents, the following were of particular importance.

- “Tradition plays a major role in causing the shortage of manpower and failure to attract students to enrol in the vocational and technical schools.”
- “Saudis do not like to work in some occupations, even if the government gives them good salaries and motivates them for example, nursing and laboratory work in hospitals. This is because the culture and traditional values look down upon these occupations.”
- “Parents think that their children should complete their education until they have a university degree. Even if they did not find a good job, they should at least hold a degree from university, because the whole society respects people who have higher education. This means that the students who can not finish the high school or obtain a university degree are the only ones who go for vocational and technical training. Society in the end looks down on them.”

As we can see, according to the views of the interviewees students’ attitudes towards study in vocational and technical institute (and therefore the shortage of manpower) were affected by tradition. Thus students who enrolled to study in vocational and technical institutes were more likely than those who go to universities to be intimidated and to gain less respect from society. These points are taken up by al-Misnad who concludes that tradition constrains the desired development and has reduced the importance, or even has been responsible for the failure, of vocational and technical education at secondary and post-secondary level in the Gulf states. She argues:

- “Technical and vocational education is looked down upon by a majority of parents, irrespective of their own education background.
- It is a commonly held view among the general public, as well as among students and educationalists, that admission to technical and vocational education programmes is the last resort for those who either fail to enter general academic education or who cannot find employment.



- It has been noted that the majority of students take no real interest in their studies and specialisation programme because they believe that there will be a secure post for them in government regardless of their academic performance or their training programme.
- Technical and vocational education is less attractive because manual and technical workers have always been regarded as inferior to white collar workers, both in the Gulf states and in other developing countries.
- Increasing dislike and lack of interest among young nationals in the Gulf states in the existing technical education system also springs from the fact that they find themselves in social category similar to that of the emigrant labour force and also as social rejects compared to their peers who have either enrolled in general academic education or are going to pursue some financially rewarding career or profession.
- The early introduction of technical education at secondary school level undoubtedly limits the future prospects of students who enrol in comparison with those who continue with their general academic education which offers a wider choice for further education.’’<sup>14</sup>

In short tradition is the key element to blame as it has undermined students’ interest in technical training. If tradition continues to have a strong bearing on the attitudes of Saudi society then it will be difficult, if not impossible, to promote the idea of Saudization. Saudi Arabia will continue to rely on foreign workers in occupations deemed inappropriate as a career for a Saudi Arabian.

Interestingly the problem of traditional attitudes has not been systematically studied before. There is little evidence that tradition is taken into account within the education system and civil service system when considering strategies on Saudization. The education system and the civil service system need to find means of countering traditional influences and encouraging young people to take seriously the science subjects. This approach would also need co-operation between the government and those who foster traditional values in society.

**QUESTION TEN: “DO YOU THINK STUDENTS SHOULD HAVE SPECIFIC AND SPECIAL TRAINING AFTER THEY GRADUATE FROM THE**



## **UNIVERSITY SO AS TO PREPARE THEM FOR WORK IN THE GOVERNMENT OR IN THE PRIVATE SECTOR?”**

The main aim of this question was to obtain information on whether or not students should have special work-related training after their graduation from university. Among the comments made by respondents, the following were of particular importance.

- “The university graduates should have specific training to cope with their jobs. But that training should be held during the period of study in the university, because if this training is taken after the students finish their study, it will cost too much money and the study period will be too long.”
- “The best training is the one which takes place inside the organisation itself. This kind of training would give the people the chance to be close to the job and put the knowledge into practice directly. This method of training has two important advantages, firstly, it saves time; and secondly, it saves money and costs less.”

All the respondents agreed that further training was necessary for graduates but as can be seen from the data opinion was divided on how to implement the training. There was some support for special training during the period of study at the university, but others felt that special training should be done in the place of work after graduation. Interestingly both sides used cost to support their argument. Those who supported training while at university argued that this would reduce costs, while those who supported on-the-job training argued this option would be less costly. Similarly both sides invoked the argument of time, with those wanting training during study arguing this would save time, while those who preferred in-job training similarly maintaining that this method was less time-consuming. The latter group also argued that on-the-job training allowed the knowledge gained to be used immediately.

The similarity between the two different lines of policy that savings could be made both in costs and time by on-the-job training as opposed to the present system of running general post-graduation courses would indicate that both solutions could be



implemented. Overall the policies require further study to measure the costs and benefits of both alternatives. Indeed it is possible to combine both methods by awarding a student a job at the outset of the university education. During the vacations the student could gain both work experience and also receive job specific training. However, as this solution would not be available to every potential graduate, alternative solutions must be investigated.

As al-Majed noted, Saudi Arabia is willing to spend on the development of its human resources.<sup>15</sup> This reduces the power of the argument that training after university education is too costly. Furthermore as Alaki argues universities are not always in a position to provide training for specific careers.<sup>16</sup> It is therefore vital to provide job-related training at some point for all Saudi graduates. However, the important point from the replies of the respondents is that the training should be on-the-job rather than generalised training. This point is supported by GOTEVT in a seminar held in the Commercial and Industrial Chamber entitled ‘Saudization and Training’, when it was argued that on-the-job training should be given greater emphasis.<sup>17</sup>

#### **QUESTION ELEVEN: “WHY DO SAUDIS PREFER TO WORK IN THE PUBLIC SECTOR RATHER THAN IN THE PRIVATE SECTOR?”**

This question aimed to explore the reasons why, in the opinions of the interviewees Saudis usually want to work in the public sector as opposed to the private sector. Among the comments made by respondents to the question the following were of particular importance.

- “It is more secure in the long run.”
- “It is stable.”
- “The work is comfortable and easy to do.”
- “It has social prestige.”
- “The work is routine, not creative.”
- “There are less hours of work.”
- “Public sector jobs have a good pension.”



- “Public sector jobs have low responsibility.”
- “The Civil Service Bureau protects the workers against any kind of abuse from their institution.”
- “The public sector has a good vacation system.”

The comments concerning the reasons for Saudi Arabians preferring to work in the public sector rather than the private sector can be placed in three categories; social status, job-related benefits, and perception of the work involved. The reason of social status which has been discussed in relation to the previous questions was raised as one of the main reasons that influence Saudi Arabians to work in the public sector. Employment in the private sector does not carry the same status as jobs (especially those at a senior level) in the public sector.

The second group of reasons is associated with the benefits related to employment in the public sector. The answers of the interviewees indicate that Saudi Arabians perceive public sector jobs to be secure and stable, with fewer hours, good pensions and long holidays. Conversely the private sector is synonymous with little job protection, long hours, no pension and few holidays.

The final set of reasons were related to the type of work which Saudis consider is done in the public sector. The jobs are considered comfortable, easy and routine with low levels of responsibility. These attributes are not associated with private sector employment.

The perceptions of the differences between the public sector and private sector employment indicate that public sector productivity needs to be improved. Thus, it is imperative to reduce the differences between the public and private sector employment in terms of job-related benefits. Furthermore jobs in the public sector must be open to efficiency assessment to enable the perceptions of ‘easy’ and ‘comfortable’ to be removed. Allied to the need to improve public sector productivity is the requirement to alter the perception of ‘status’ for private sector employment, through the use of the media, the education system, entertainment, etc..



Campells argues that there are no Saudis in high positions in the private sector, because the Saudis prefer to work as teachers, managers, secretaries, clerical officers and in white collar jobs. He argued that Saudi people would regard the job in the private sector as very hard, 'dirty', and low status.<sup>18</sup> However, the present finding has provided other reasons, all of which are indicators of a need to improve productivity within the public sector. It is this aspect which must be placed at or near the top of future plans to ensure the successful implementation of Saudization.

**QUESTION TWELVE: "WHY DO WE HAVE SOME PEOPLE SEARCHING FOR JOBS OR ON THE WAITING LIST; AND HOW MANY DO YOU ESTIMATE ARE SEARCHING FOR EMPLOYMENT, NOT FINDING IT AND FOR HOW LONG HAVE THEY BEEN WAITING?"**

The aim of this question was to explore reasons why, despite attempts to implement the Saudization programme there is still unemployment of well-educated Saudis; to determine how many are still searching for work; and how long they can remain on the waiting list. Among the comments made by respondents, the following were of particular importance.

- "They are looking for specific types of jobs and in a specific geographical location, most of them prefer to work in the city."
- "The most important factor in this issue lies in the poor planning by the Ministry of Planning."
- "The planners lack accurate information about the number of graduates needed in each department. Therefore, the result is that there are many graduates who hold a degree but have no job, and specifically those who hold degrees in Business Administration, Accountancy, Public Administration, History, Geography, and the Humanities. Therefore, the Civil Service faces a big problem as to what to do with those people, due to the lack of vacancies in the work place. This leads the Civil Service to produce a waiting list for organisational purposes, until there is a vacancy and this waiting can sometimes last up to two years. In Assir region there are around 2000 waiting."



- “They have the freedom to chose their jobs and the Civil Service bureau can not force them to accept a job.”
- “The education policy in the Kingdom, which is free for everybody in the country, helps people to finish their university degree according to their desires rather than according to manpower needs.”
- “There is a lack of co-ordination between the output of higher education and the requirements for manpower.”
- “We do not have a waiting list and no one is waiting for a job - they are waiting for the recruitment process to be complete. Sometimes this can take up to two months, but for some qualifications such as sociology or psychology it can be longer.”
- “Those youths who graduate from university should ask themselves why they study: is it to have a certificate, to prepare for the future or to satisfy family, tribe or friends.”

From the replies it is apparent that the interviewees focused on different aspects which result in unemployment for Saudi graduates. These reasons can be classified into personal and systemic.

In the first category, which was emphasised to a lesser degree, the reasons put forward included the fact that a number of students were only interested in a specific job. Also there was the constraint that some students sought work in a specific geographical location, usually the urban areas. This particular point will be discussed in greater depth in the following chapters. Furthermore, it was recognised that some students sought a degree as an end in itself not as means to obtain employment. These students were perceived as studying undemanding courses, and thus they lacked the skills needed in the Saudi workplace. Thus it was argued that these students brought unemployment upon themselves.

Five reasons were forthcoming which can be classified as systemic. Two of these were similar, placing the fault directly on either the education or planning departments. The former was claimed to have failed because it did not turn out the right type of graduate, whereas the latter was accused of bad planning. A more complex analysis



was also proposed which suggested that the reason was due to a lack of co-ordination between the two departments. A further suggestion was that the lack of liaison was due to a lack of information on which to base decisions. The final systemic reason was based on graduates' freedom in choosing which job they desired in the public sector.

The analysis of the evidence allows the researcher to suggest several methods to reduce the numbers of students waiting for employment. The first suggestion is that students could be encouraged, by both positive and negative means, to consider a number of different job choices. Secondly it seems that a policy by the government to allow young Saudis to work in rural areas is missing from the Saudization programme. Thirdly information should be collected and made available on both the present position and projected future unemployment, in the light of the development plan, the education system and the Saudization programme. The information could be used to establish greater co-operation between the Ministry of Planning and the Kingdom's universities. In this way progress could be made to reduce unemployment levels of the graduates in the Kingdom.

Turning to the second part of the question about the question of length of time of unemployment, estimates vary from the absence of unemployment to a period of up to two years. While it is possible to argue that the graduates are not in effect unemployed because they are merely waiting for the application procedures to be complete, during this process the students are not helping the productivity of the Saudi economy nor contributing to the Saudization programme. From this argument it is apparent that the system of vacancies for the public sector requires to be reviewed with an aim to provide immediate employment for the graduates. To assist with this process prospective employees should register with the Civil Service at least one year prior to the completion of their studies. By combining this suggestion with the use of revised entrance procedures rather than depending on the grades obtained (see question 15), the personnel departments would be in a position to offer jobs to the graduates prior to qualification rather than wait for the results to be known before the recruitment process starts. This would help speed up the process of Saudization.



**QUESTION 13: “ACCORDING TO AL SHARQ AL AWSAT (11th FEBRUARY 1995) THERE ARE AROUND 6 MILLION NON-SAUDIS WORKING IN SAUDI ARABIA. DO YOU THINK THIS NUMBER IS CORRECT AND IF SO IS IT TOO MUCH OR TOO LITTLE FOR OUR DEVELOPMENT?”**

The figure of around 6 million non-Saudis working in Saudi Arabia was subsequently confirmed by information supplied by a Ministry of Interior work paper presented at a seminar on the 2nd December 1995 entitled ‘The Recruitment of Indigenous People in the Private Sector’ organised by the Manpower Council.<sup>19</sup> The aim of this question was to understand the awareness of the respondents to the number of foreign workers in the Kingdom and to elicit their views on the optimum size. It is important to note that the question is concerned with the employment of non-Saudis in general throughout Saudi Arabia and is not just confined to the public sector. Among the comments made by respondents, the following were of particular importance.

**A. In respect of the estimate of 6 million**

- “This number is not accurate and is an exaggeration. There are less than 6 million non-Saudi workers.”
- “This number is very close to the true number.”
- “I do not know if this number is too large or too small. This is because I have no idea about number of non- Saudi workers in the Kingdom.”
- “This number is less than the real number of non-Saudi workers in Saudi Arabia.”

**B. In respect of the numbers in relation to the development needs**

- “The figure is too high because there are some Saudis searching for a job.”
- “The figure is too high as we have unemployment among Saudi Arabians.”
- “The figure is too small because Saudi Arabia is a big country with a small population and needs these foreigners for its development.”

Of the nineteen people interviewed six declined to estimate whether or not the figures were accurate. A seven of the remaining thirteen respondents thought that the figure given was an exaggeration, while the others felt it was reasonably accurate.



Significantly, only one interviewee thought the figure was an under-estimate. The unwillingness of a number of respondents to accept the figures illustrates the difficulties faced by those concerned with implementing the Saudization programme. If Saudi follow the example of the interviewees and fail to appreciate the size of the foreign workforce, then it creates difficulties for the manpower planners to gain the acceptance and support of the public to mobilise resources to reduce the numbers of non-Saudis.

Analysis of the answers to the second part of the question showed that nine respondents thought that more non-Saudis were being employed than was necessary for the development of the Kingdom. Their reason was invariably related to the number of Saudis who were looking for employment. On the other hand two interviewees felt that the figure was too small for the development needs of the country. Eight of the respondents declined to comment usually because they were unsure of the initial figure and therefore felt they were not in a position to comment on the second part of the question.

The nine out of the eleven respondents who were willing to comment supported the hypothesis that there were too many non-Saudi workers for the development needs of the Kingdom. This level of support should translate into acceptance of policies which the government requires to implement to achieve its aim of Saudization. However, it was apparent that the respondents conceived the question purely in terms of unemployment among their fellow Saudi Arabians and not in the wider context of the dangers to society and the economy posed by the large number of foreigners. This suggests that the government should implement a programme to increase the awareness of the problems faced by Saudi Arabia because of its dependency on the number of non-Saudis. The increased awareness could help increase the acceptance of the Saudization programme across all sectors and at all levels of the workforce.

As already discussed the number of non-Saudi workers is still increasing. Evidence for this is provided by official documents, such as the working paper provided by the Ministry of the Interior discussed earlier and the various development plans issued by



the Ministry of Planning. According to research by al-Ghaith and al-Mashugh, the figures will continue to grow through the Sixth Development Plan.<sup>20</sup>

**QUESTION FOURTEEN: “IN THE PUBLIC SECTOR, WE HAVE ACCORDING TO AL-SHARQ AL-AWSAT AROUND 600,000 FOREIGN WORKERS HOLDING DIFFERENT POSITIONS IN MANY DIFFERENT AGENCIES AROUND OUR COUNTRY. DO YOU THINK THIS NUMBER IS ACCURATE AND IF SO SHOULD IT GO UP OR DOWN IN THE FUTURE, WITH PARTICULAR REFERENCE TO ASSIR?”**

The aim of this question was to determine respondents' views whether the number of foreign workers employed in the public sector should be increased or if it should be reduced; particularly with reference to Assir region. It should be noted that figures for non-Saudi employment in the public sector usually include only those directly employed by the Civil Service. The official figures quoted in the various development plans and by the Civil Service Bureau therefore exclude those contracted out through agencies. However, as discussed in Chapter 1, section 1.3, the figure of 600,000 was accepted by an official of the Civil Service at a seminar in Abha in 1995. Among the comments made by respondents, the following were of particular importance.

- “I believe that this is an exaggeration. Furthermore, the level of non-Saudi employment will drop dramatically in the future as a result of the government's strategy implemented by the Civil Service Bureau in Saudi Arabia, because the Civil service considers each job occupied by a non-Saudi as a vacancy open to a qualified Saudi.”
- “This might be the correct number even if it seems high and I believe there is no fast solution to reduce this number. I suggest that the number can be reduced by motivating the Saudis to accept technical and vocational positions.”
- “I agree with the number and I believe it will increase in the future throughout the country because the country is still developing rapidly which means we still need more services.”



The lack of clarity concerning the number of non-Saudi workers in the public sector was highlighted by the fact that only eight out of nineteen interviewees agreed that the number was accurate. These respondents also argued that the number might have to increase in the future. This point was made with particular reference to the position in the Assir region. The reason for this was that the region has many projects presently being implemented, with still more in the pipeline. The expansion of the education and health sectors would also require more skilled workers. Therefore, it was considered probable that the region would have more foreign workers particularly in the health and education sectors.

Seven out of nineteen respondents stated that although they were not aware of the number they felt that the number actually employed should be reduced in the future. The three respondents who thought that the figure of 600,000 was not accurate, also argued that the overall number of foreigners in the public sector should be reduced. Both these categories put forward the idea of what ought to happen, as opposed to the first group who argued what will happen in relation to the employment of non-Saudis in Assir.

In common with the material which arose from previous question, the findings reveal that some senior Saudi officials do not seem to be aware of the facts regarding the number of foreign workers in the country. Once again this is significant because as a result they may not be concerned about the presence of the foreigners in the workforce which will in turn reduce their enthusiasm for the Saudization plan. The lack of awareness of the penetration of non-Saudis may be related to the level of disbelief in the figures produced in official papers and data. Therefore it is of paramount importance to increase the public's acceptance of official figures by, for example, regularly issuing figures of the number of non-Saudis in the country and also the level of unemployment amongst Saudis.

A further worry for those involved with the Saudization programme is the acceptance by eight of the respondents that, because of the development needs of Saudi Arabia in general and the Assir region in particular, the number of foreign workers must be



increased. The relationship between development and foreign workers must be altered so that development is addressed within the framework of Saudization.

### **6.3. INTERVIEW DATA: SECTION TWO**

This section analyses question fifteen which was posed only to one interviewee, the Director-Manager of the Civil Service Bureau in Assir.

**QUESTION FIFTEEN: “SINCE YOU ARE THE DIRECTOR-MANAGER OF THE CIVIL SERVICE BUREAU IN ASSIR REGION, PLEASE GIVE US DETAILS ABOUT THE RECRUITMENT PROCEDURES OF BOTH SAUDIS AND NON-SAUDIS IN THE WORKFORCE”**

The purpose of this question was to detail systematically the procedures used in the recruitment of the workforce. The main objective was to trace whether or not the Saudization programme influenced recruitment procedures, in real rather than theoretical terms. Among the information given by the respondent, the following were of particular importance.

- “There are two methods used to recruit Saudis to work in public sector:
  - A) Open competition, by examination, between those who do not have university degrees, organised by the Civil Service Bureau. Those who obtain high grades are then chosen.
  - B) For those who have university degrees, the Civil Service Bureau ranks them according to their grade and chooses the higher grades. This goes on until the civil service has the number of graduates they require, according to the number of vacant positions. The graduates are then distributed among the public institutions.”
- “There are, also, two methods used to recruit non-Saudis:
  - A) One method is carried out by the Civil Service Bureau offices outside Saudi Arabia. The Civil Service Bureau used to have four offices outside of Saudi Arabia at the beginning of the 1970 Development Plan but the government finally closed all of them except the one still open in Egypt.



B) The Civil Service Bureau gives all the universities, the Ministry of Health, and the Ministry of Education full authority to import employees according to their needs. Therefore each organisation sends a recruitment committee outside the country to look for good and qualified staff to come and work. They spend almost two months abroad selecting employees. All the committees have to follow the rules established by the Civil Service Bureau. Those committees go to different Arab and non-Arab countries to recruit, particularly doctors, teachers, nurses, technical staff members, etc.”

The interview revealed a number of relevant points. Firstly, the single reliance on the grade of the university degree, for the recruitment of Saudis with such qualifications, is surprising as this is not necessarily a measure of quality in the performance of administrative work. Other tests and indices might be more relevant. Furthermore, as discussed in relation to question 12, waiting for the grade of pass to be known slows down the recruitment process.

Turning to the recruitment of non-Saudis the major finding for the purposes of the present study is the freedom given to the Ministries of Health and Education, as well as the universities, to recruit non-Saudis as they find it necessary. This raises an interesting point: if the Kingdom wants to avoid or reduce foreign workers then, as Looney argues, “why have they left employment procedures open?”<sup>21</sup> Over 80% of employees in these sectors are non-Saudis. This openness of employment is against the precepts of Saudization.

From the findings it is possible to suggest two alterations to the present system. Firstly, as academic qualifications alone are no guarantor of a persons’ working ability, all graduates should submit to ability tests of various kinds related to administrative work. Allied to the tests a system of interviews should be introduced to help establish the suitability of the applicant. A further step, in the recruitment process should include the need for references. Secondly it is necessary for central control to be re-established over the Ministries of Health and Education, as well as the universities. A procedure must be established to ensure that all posts are offered to Saudis prior to



being opened to non-Saudis. Furthermore, each post should be examined to ensure that a vacancy really does exist. These steps ought to be able to help speed up the implementation of Saudization. It can also be argued that employment procedures should have been included in the measurement of the Saudization achievements, as it may be an appropriate method of understanding how foreigners come to work in the Kingdom.

The main point highlighted by the analysis of question fifteen was that the delay to the Saudization process seems to be due, in part, to the present recruitment process.

#### **6.4. INTERVIEW DATA: ADDITIONAL MATERIAL**

This section deals with comments or suggestions which the interviewees felt were not covered by the first fifteen questions but were relevant to the overall issue of manpower and training.

**QUESTION SIXTEEN: “IF YOU HAVE ANY COMMENT OR SUGGESTIONS, OR ANY IDEA THAT I HAVE NOT ADDRESSED, PLEASE MAKE IT KNOWN TO ME AND THIS WILL HELP THE RESEARCHER TO REACH THE AIM OF THE RESEARCH.”**

It should be noted here that most of the points raised by respondents at this stage were relevant to questions asked earlier. Nonetheless, the researcher believes a number of the points raised are worth noting. Among the comments made by the respondents, the following were of particular importance.

- “Education reform is needed at all levels, particularly from primary through to higher education.”
- “There should be very close links between higher education and the Ministry of Planning, so that the planners are aware of the kind of students, and so see that every graduate student has the chance to respond to the development plan.”
- “Technical and vocational education must be given more attention.”



- “Good training programmes should be established so as to give people the skills needed for doing valuable work.”
- “The intake of students should be increased in such areas as medicine, petroleum studies, intermediate vocational and technical education, information systems, English language, Arabic language, business studies, and Public Administration”

These comments emphasis further the key role to be played by the educational system in the Saudization programme; the need for co-operation between higher education and the Ministry of Planning; the desirability of developing new training programmes; and the need to emphasis particular academic disciplines and training areas.

One further comment attributed the slow movement of Saudization to a failure of publicity. It was felt that the publicity for the policy of Saudization was not wide enough, that rapid change was needed in this respect, and that all of the influential bodies should be involved in this.

## **6.5. CONCLUSION**

The conclusion reviews the analysis of the chapter to highlight the perceptions of the interviewees in relation to the Saudization programme. The section firstly discusses the perceived strengths and then the perceived weaknesses of the plan. The final analysis concentrates on recommendations to assist with speeding up the Saudization programme.

### **6.5.1. PERCEIVED STRENGTHS**

From the interviews it is apparent that, in general, the respondents thought the level of foreign employment in Saudi Arabia was excessive. Furthermore they agreed that the best method to attack this problem was through the implementation of the Saudization plan. However, all interviewees agreed that the programme was not at present very successful.



### **6.5.2. PERCEIVED WEAKNESSES**

The main weakness identified was that the Saudization plan was only slowly being implemented. A number of factors were identified as accounting for this failure. The first factor was the perceived lack of co-ordination between the planning department and the education sector. This resulted in students gaining the wrong type of qualifications; inappropriate job training being undertaken; and sectors such as health and education being giving free rein to import foreign workers. The second factor was the conflict between the needs of development (which increases foreign workers) and the desire to implement Saudization (which attempts to exclude non-Saudis). A third perceived problem leading to the slow implementation of Saudization was that the process actually creates an environment which does not encourage high productivity from native workers in the public sector. The final factor was that of tradition which has resulted in Saudis accepting the presence of foreign workers for menial, low status jobs. This has created a prevailing attitude where the foreign worker is only considered a problem in the higher grades of the public sector, with the result that Saudization can not be successfully implemented.

### **6.5.3. RECOMMENDATIONS**

In order to speed up the process of Saudization a number of changes to the present system are recommended. Firstly, there must be increased liaison between the three elements concerned: the development planners, the Saudization planners and the education institutions. For this liaison to be successful there must be an increase in the amount of relevant, accurate and up-to-date information available to all personnel involved. Furthermore the central authorities must establish whether development or Saudization is more important to the Kingdom. Unless development is made accountable to Saudization there can only be a continued increase in the number of foreign workers.

Secondly the promotion of the idea of Saudization must be given a main priority. The aims of the increased awareness should be to alter the prevailing attitudes in Saudi society to overcome the barriers which affect the number of students interested in the



natural sciences, as well as vocational and technical work. The promotion should also stress the need to increase productivity of the workers in the public sector by linking the idea of high productivity with good citizenship.

Practical changes should also be implemented. These must focus on reducing the differences between natural science courses and humanities/social science courses to increase the number of students in the former. The training for jobs presently being undertaken by the IPA and other institutions must be revamped to be more relevant to the needs of the trainee and the public sector, as well as be accorded more importance by both the trainers and the trainees. Furthermore the training should take on-site rather than at distant locations. A scheme to grant students employment at the outset of their courses would allow for those involved to gain practical experience, as well as receive on-the-job training. A further change suggested would reduce the waiting time for the employment of graduates by using ability tests, interviews and references, say one year before the student is due to qualify. This would allow the Civil Service to employ the student immediately following graduation, rather than up to two wasted years later. The final practical change should control the ability of the Ministries of Health and Education, as well as the universities to employ as many foreign workers as they want.

The implementation of the above changes ought to help increase the speed of Saudization and reduce the dependency of the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia on non-Saudi workers.

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## **ENDNOTES**

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- <sup>12</sup> Al-Gharyeani, T.S. and al-Auqla, M.A., Al-Takhtîf lil Quwa al-'Amilah fi al-Madjâlât al-Fanniyyah wa al-Mihaniyyah fi al-'Adjhizah al-Hukûmiyyah [Manpower Planning in the Field of Technical and Vocational Education in Public Sector], (Riyadh: Institute of Public Administration, 1990), pp.86-90.
- <sup>13</sup> Kingdom of Saudi Arabia Ministry of Planning, Fifth Development Plan 1990-1995, (Riyadh: Ministry of Planning, 1990), p.129.
- <sup>14</sup> Al-Misnad, S.A., "The Modern Education in Bahrain, Kuwait and Qatar with Reference to the Education of Women and Their Position in Modern Gulf Society", (Ph.D. thesis, University of Durham, 1984), pp.263-265.
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- <sup>16</sup> Alaki, M.N., op.cit.
- <sup>17</sup> Kingdom of Saudi Arabia Public Enterprise for Technical and Vocational Education Department of Planning and Budgeting, "Al-Tadrîb wa al-Sa'wadah" [Saudization and Training], Paper presented to The Seminar organised by The Commercial and Industrial Chamber, Eastern Region, Dammam, 13th to 14th May 1991.
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## **CHAPTER SEVEN**

### **ANALYSIS OF STUDENTS' OPINIONS RELATED TO EMPLOYMENT REASONS FOR CHOOSING SUBJECT OF STUDY**

#### **7.1. INTRODUCTION**

This chapter is the first of three which analyse the questionnaire data on the attitudes and perceptions of 574 final year students in two of the universities in the south of Saudi Arabia, namely the Imam University and King Saud University. The high number of questionnaires returned (see section 7.2), along with the high number of questions answered within each questionnaire should be noted. This increases the significance of the data presented. The questionnaire was developed to establish the students' perceptions of the relationship between university education and their employment desires, as well as their attitude to the increasing numbers of foreign nationals employed within Saudi Arabia. The responses of the students have been analysed to determine whether they are aware of the manpower needs of the Saudization programme and more importantly to establish where the major breakdowns between the students' own desires and the manpower plan occur. In view of this data the study will then be able to recommend changes to the system to allow for successful implementation of Saudization programme.

The questionnaire was divided into four sections, namely:

- personal background - questions 1 to 4;
- reasons for choosing the subject - questions 5 to 7
- employment objectives - questions 8 to 14; and
- the attitude to employment of non-Saudis - questions 15 to 17.

This chapter deals with sections one and two, while section three is discussed in chapter eight and section four is analysed in chapter nine.



The first section sought information on the personal details of the students, with relation to their university, college, family residence, type of secondary school attended and the subject they were presently studying. The final question in the first section asked the students for their primary reason for attending university. The second section of the questionnaire raised questions on the students' choice of subject: whether, with hindsight, they would have preferred to study a different subject and, if so, which subject.

In the analysis that follows, the thesis will highlight each question, establishing the reason for its relevance and will then analyse the results by presenting the data in the form of descriptive statistics. These will then be discussed with reference to previous data, primary and secondary literature, the interviews discussed in chapter six and the researcher's own experience garnered while lecturing at the Imam University. The answers will, further, be cross-tabulated with other relevant questions to pinpoint more accurately the students' attitudes and perceptions to highlight any problems which could be addressed by the manpower plan.

## **7.2. SECTION A: PERSONAL BACKGROUND**

This section covers the personal background of the students, which is mainly used in cross tabulations for the main questions which follow in sections two, three and four. A brief analysis is nevertheless be presented on the findings in this section.

### **7.2.1 UNIVERSITY AND COLLEGE DETAILS**

Unlike Britain, the majority of students prefer to study close to their place of residence. This requires the universities in the region to offer a full range of subjects to the students. The two universities selected for the questionnaire are based in the south of Saudi Arabia, with Imam University concentrating on the humanities and social sciences, in the form of Islamic law, Arabic and the social sciences, while King Saud University concentrates on education and the natural sciences.



**Table 7.1 Students' University**

UNIVERSITY	Final Year Student Nos.	Number of Responses	Percentage of Responses
Imam University	450	379	66.0
King Saud University	250	192	33.5
Answer Omitted		3	0.5
<b>Total</b>	<b>700</b>	<b>574</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Table 7.1 illustrates the breakdown as to which university the respondents attend and as can be seen, there was a high response rate with 82% of the 700 students returning the questionnaire. The 32.5% response difference between attendance at Imam University and King Saud University is because the former has a higher number of students overall, as well as in the final year, and was consequently issued with more questionnaires.

**Table 7.2 College Membership**

College	University	Number of Responses	Percentage of Responses
Faculty of Islamic Law	Imam	182	31.7
Faculty of Arabic and Social Studies	Imam	196	34.1
Faculty of Education	King Saud	156	27.2
Faculty of Medicine	King Saud	36	6.3
Answer Omitted		4	0.7
<b>Total</b>		<b>574</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Table 7.2 indicates the responses to the question of which college the students attend. Each university has two colleges. Again the difference in level of response between these colleges is due to the unequal distribution of questionnaires, which was related to the actual levels of membership.

### 7.2.2. QUESTION 1: FAMILY AREA OF RESIDENCE

Although a straightforward question, this aspect must be considered a major element in affecting manpower development in Saudi Arabia. In the researcher's experience, Saudi students prefer to study and work in the area where their family lives. The reason for this can be attributed to the strong tribal culture existing within Saudi



Arabia, with its emphasis on the extended family, the closeness of family relationship and the responsibilities which this entails. The answers to this particular question are cross-tabulated with a number of the later questions.

For the purpose of the study, the crucial differences between the rural and urban areas relate to the existence of infrastructure facilities, the likelihood of employment and the size of population. Thus, in the rural areas there is less infrastructure and fewer employment prospects, while the density of the population could be considered to be diffuse. The urban areas are the converse of this, with more infrastructure, more employment prospects and greater density of population.

**Table 7.3 Area of Family Residence**

Family Residence	Number of Responses	Percentage of Responses	Valid Percentage
Rural	199	34.7	35.8
Urban	357	62.1	64.2
Answer Omitted	18	3.1	n/a
<b>Total</b>	<b>574</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>

As can be seen from table 7.3, just under two-thirds. of students who answered the question come from urban areas (64.2%), while the remaining students come from the rural areas. This reflects the actual population characteristics of the catchment area of the two universities.

**7.2.3. QUESTION 2: TYPE OF SECONDARY SCHOOL ATTENDED**

The secondary school system in Saudi Arabia caters for students between the ages of 15 and 18. Parents and students have freedom of choice as to which school the students can attend. As with university the secondary school education is free to all users. At the time of the study there were six types of secondary school available, all of which are funded through the Ministry of Education, with the exception of the Islamic Institute, which is attached to Imam University. The two General Secondary Schools<sup>1</sup> operate on a semester system and concentrate on either the humanities and social sciences or the natural sciences, as is evident by their name. Intensive Secondary



Schools, which no longer exist, were an experimental system in which potential high achievers were able to graduate in a quicker time scale of two and a half years, as opposed to three years. The final three schools all have humanitarian based curricula. In general those pupils graduating from the Holy Quran Memorising School tend to attend universities other than Imam University. It is important to note that each school offers courses in the natural sciences, although these courses may not be given as much emphasis as other classes within the curriculum.

The question asked the students which of the six types of school they attended. This question was raised in an attempt to gain a more accurate knowledge on whether differences in students attitudes' and perceptions to both employment and Saudization could be related to their attendance at different secondary schools. The question is cross-tabulated with a number of later questions.

**Table 7.4 Type of Secondary School Attended**

Type of Secondary School	Number of Responses	Percentage of Responses
General Secondary School (Literary)	295	51.4
General Secondary School (Natural Sciences)	106	18.4
Intensive Secondary School	32	5.6
Islam Institute	122	21.3
Theological Secondary School	14	2.4
Holy Quran Memorising Secondary School	0	0
Answer Omitted	5	0.9
<b>Total</b>	<b>574</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Overall, schools attended range from 295 or 51.4% attendance at General Secondary Schools (Literary) to zero at the Holy Quran Memorising Secondary School. From the sample of 574 students only 106, less than one in five, attended schools specifically encouraging the natural sciences. Over 80% of students attended schools with a high humanities/social science content, whether religiously-based or through the General Secondary Schools (Literary) and Intensive Schools. The data therefore tends to support the thesis put forward in the literature by Badri which argues that young people in Gulf States have negative attitudes towards science subjects. He states:



“The majority of local students prefer to join the literary section of the secondary school education. The wider needs of the economy are not met because most of the graduates are specialised in humanities and have received a purely theoretical education. This failure in science and technology does not support policies of localisation of jobs.”<sup>2</sup>

#### **7.2.4. QUESTION 3: SUBJECT OF STUDY**

This question, which asked the students their chosen subject of study, is of major importance because it is necessary to know the present breakdown of student numbers in each discipline in order to establish the various shortfalls in numbers required by the Saudization programme. It is not merely sufficient to know the figures, but it is also necessary to understand the reasons behind the variations. Therefore the second part of this section will analyse the relationship between choice of subject and family place of residence and also type of secondary school attended.

The students were given a list of 18 subjects against which to place their answer. If their subject was not included in the original list then they were asked to tick ‘other’ and give the name of the subject.

Table 7.5 also includes a column which breaks down the subjects into either the humanities, social sciences or the natural sciences. This division is used extensively in later cross tabulation analysis. For the purposes of this study the humanities and social sciences are considered to be less vital to the Saudization programme. The humanities are defined according to Oxford English Dictionary as “the study of literature, philosophy, religion, history, language and law.”<sup>3</sup> The social sciences are defined as the study of human society and environment, and of social and economic relationships (e.g. economics, geography, politics, business administration and sociology). The natural sciences which are seen as the key to the successful implementation of Saudization can be defined as scientific study of the physical world, for example, physics chemistry, geology, biology, botany and medicine.

From table 7.5 it is apparent that there is a strong preference for the humanities and social sciences, with 435 students in this category, whereas only 139 have registered



for science courses. This is a ratio of over 3 to 1 in favour of the humanities and social sciences. Indeed within the humanities and social sciences, 178 or 31.0% of the respondents had opted to take either Islamic Law or Principles of Religion. This is an important finding of the questionnaire because the success of Saudization depends on more science graduates and less humanities and social sciences graduates. Furthermore it supports the thesis put forward by Osama: "70 per cent of the candidates graduating from most of Saudi Arabia's colleges are in the humanities and social sciences. Education policies should be properly guided and related to development requirements."<sup>4</sup>

**Table 7.5 Subject of Study**

Subject	Humanities/ Social Sciences or Natural Sciences	Number of Responses	Percentage of Responses
Islamic Law ( <i>sharia</i> )	Humanities/Social Sciences	82	14.3
Principles of Religion ( <i>usulaldin</i> )	Humanities/Social Sciences	96	16.7
Arabic Language	Humanities/Social Sciences	47	8.2
English Language	Humanities/Social Sciences	20	3.5
History	Humanities/Social Sciences	54	9.4
Economics	Humanities/Social Sciences	8	1.4
Public Administration	Humanities/Social Sciences	13	2.3
Business Administration	Humanities/Social Sciences	19	3.3
Accounting	Humanities/Social Sciences	21	3.7
Geography	Humanities/Social Sciences	31	5.4
Curriculum & Method of Teaching	Humanities/Social Sciences	2	0.3
Psychology	Humanities/Social Sciences	19	3.3
Sociology	Humanities/Social Sciences	23	4.0
<b>Sub-Total</b>	<b>Humanities/Social Sciences</b>	<b>435</b>	<b>75.8</b>
Medicine	Natural Sciences	36	6.3
Mathematics	Natural Sciences	21	3.7
Physics	Natural Sciences	18	3.1
Chemistry	Natural Sciences	30	5.2
Biology	Natural Sciences	34	5.9
<b>Sub-Total</b>	<b>Natural Sciences</b>	<b>139</b>	<b>24.2</b>
Other		0	0.0
<b>Total</b>		<b>574</b>	<b>100.0</b>



Figures issued by the Ministry of Higher Education in Saudi Arabia in 1991 also support the findings of question three. The report argues that the gap between the output of the higher education sector and the development needs of Saudi Arabia is still wide. The figures are given in table 7.6.

**Table 7.6 Distribution of Male Students in Higher Education According to the Field of Study**

Field of Study	Total %
Islamic Studies	12.8
Humanities	24.5
Social Sciences	1.7
Administration and Economics	9.8
Education	26.5
Natural Sciences	10.0
Engineering	6.3
Medicine	5.6
Agriculture	1.8
Others	1.0
<b>Total</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Source: Kingdom of Saudi Arabia Ministry of Higher Education, Statistical Index on Progress of Higher Education, 1980 to 1991, issue no. 6, (Riyadh: Al Orubah, 1992).

From the experience of the researcher as a lecturer at the Imam University and also from the opinions gained from the respondents, four reasons can be attributed for the preference of the humanities/social sciences. Firstly, in order to be accepted for a science degree the Saudi student requires over 85%, as compared to the humanities and social sciences where a grade of 75% is acceptable. The second reason is associated with time, in that science courses such as medicine require seven years of study, while the maximum length of a humanities or social science course is four years. The average student seems to want to obtain a job, with its associated benefit of increased income, as quickly as possible. The third reason is that the students perceive the natural sciences as more difficult. This is reinforced by the decision to split general secondary schools into literary and sciences, with the latter being considered more academically challenging. The final reason is that universities offer more places in the humanities and social sciences than the natural sciences.



The data shows that the universities do offer a wide range of courses, which are suitable for covering some of the needs currently served by non-Saudi employment, but the problem appears to be the level of take-up by the Saudi students. The next section of the questionnaire therefore concentrates on the perceptions and attitudes of the students to the question of employment and whether they take into account the needs of Saudi Arabia when making their choices.

#### 7.2.4.1. The Relationship between Place of Residence and Choice of Subject

In order to understand whether the family place of residence has a strong effect on the choice of subject, questions one and three were cross tabulated. Further, in order to make the analysis easier the choices of subjects were grouped into the humanities/social sciences and the natural sciences.

**Table 7.7 Subject of Study by Area of Residence**

Figures in percentages	Humanities/ social sciences	Natural Sciences
Rural	71.4	28.6
Urban	80.4	19.6
<b>Average</b>	<b>77.2</b>	<b>22.8</b>

Table 7.7 shows that a larger proportion of rural students are attracted to natural science than their urban counter parts: 28.6% compared to 19.6%. However, in neither case are the numbers taking science courses sufficiently high for the needs of the Saudization programme. The results highlight the necessity to concentrate attention on persuading the urban students, in particular, to switch to the natural sciences.

#### 7.2.4.2. The Relationship between Secondary School Attended and Choice of Subject

In order to establish the reasons behind the poor take-up of natural science courses at university, this section will analyse a possible causal link between the type of secondary



school attended and the choice of subject. This is achieved by cross-tabulating question two and question three. The results are displayed in table 7.8.

**Table 7.8 Relationship between Type of Secondary School and Choice of Subject.**

Figures in percentages	Humanities/ social sciences	Natural Sciences
General Secondary School (Literary)	54.2	45.8
General Secondary School (Natural Science)	100.0	0.0
Intensive Secondary School	90.6	9.4
Islam Institute	100.0	0.0
Theological Schools	100.0	0.0
<b>Average</b>	<b>75.7</b>	<b>24.3</b>

The figures detailed in table 7.8 highlight a number of very significant and surprising features. Firstly, those students who would have been considered the ones most likely to choose a science course, that is those who attended General Secondary Schools (Natural Sciences), all chose humanities or social sciences at university. This illustrates a major difficulty facing those involved in the Saudization programme, for it seems that even where the facilities are available and where natural sciences are encouraged the students have opted for humanities or social sciences courses. The main point which the cross-tabulation highlights is that students who have been taught natural sciences at school consider it a negative experience.

The second surprising information contained in the table is the breakdown of the figures from those attending General Secondary Schools (Literary), where it would be expected that students would be uninterested in the natural sciences. In fact, this type of school produced almost all the students who chose the natural sciences, 135 out of 138 respondents. However, the school still produced more students who preferred humanities or social sciences courses.

These two results would seem to indicate that despite the good intentions behind encouraging science students via specialised schooling, the reality is that the literary school is more successful in turning out students interested in the natural sciences. This result leads the researcher to conclude the government should conduct a major



review of teaching in the General Secondary Schools (Natural Sciences) to find out what is going wrong.

The final unexpected figures relate to the Intensive Secondary Schools, which as previously discussed have now been closed down. Once again the government would have anticipated that this type of school would have produced scientifically-interested pupils. However, the figures show that the numbers who chose humanities or social sciences courses outweighed those who choose natural science courses by almost ten to one.

The figures also confirm none of the students who attended religiously-based schools went on to study natural sciences. Given the numbers of students attending this type of school, this should be of concern to the manpower planners. The schools do offer science courses and a greater effort must be made to encourage these scholars to progress to the sciences.

#### **7.2.5. QUESTION 4: WHY GO TO UNIVERSITY?**

The final question in the opening section is the first of the substantive issues dealt with in the questionnaire. In it the students were asked to give their main reason for choosing to attend university. The students were provided with four choices: parents' wish; to obtain specialised knowledge for a specific job; to increase the range of job opportunities; and interest in the subject. If none of these proved suitable the students could tick 'other' and indicate the reason.

The question was posed to establish whether or not the students had clear objectives in deciding on their future. It should be noted that the researcher when he was working at university as a lecturer, gained the strong impression that students had no clear understanding of why they should study at university.

The data in table 7.9 indicates that the two main reasons chosen were both related to employment prospects and together formed the majority of replies at 62.2%. The largest category was 'to obtain specialist knowledge for a specific vocation' (35.4%),



followed by ‘increasing of job opportunities’ (26.8%). In comparison, ‘interest in the subject to be studied’ was chosen by less than one in five of the students. These findings agree with the studies of Sirageldin et al.<sup>5</sup>

**Table 7.9 Primary Reason for Attending University.**

Reason	Number of Responses	Percentage of Responses
Parents’ wish	50	8.7
To obtain specialised knowledge for a specific job	203	35.4
To increase the range of job opportunities	154	26.8
Interest in the subject to be studied	104	18.1
Other	59	10.3
Answer Omitted	4	0.7
<b>Total</b>	<b>574</b>	<b>100.0</b>

‘Parents’ wish’ received 8.7% of the replies. This may itself in part stem from the perceived link between university education and a well remunerated job. On these grounds parents may be encouraging their children to attend university. A large number of reasons were given by those respondents who gave ‘other’ as their reason.

Among these were:

- to gain knowledge;
- to continue with academic studies;
- self-improvement;
- just for the sake of going to university; and
- failed to gain admission to the Defence Forces College.

The data indicated by this question ought to give hope to any future plans for manpower. If ‘parents’ wish’ is also considered to be related to employment prospects, then a very substantial proportion of all students (70.9%) are concerned with this aspect. It ought to be possible to influence this group by ensuring that the courses which are relevant to Saudization are made sufficiently attractive, through making it clear that high quality jobs in these areas would be available.



The remaining thirty percent of students who gave ‘interest in the subject’ or some other reason, pose more of a problem to the authorities as these will be less easily influenced by the provision of guaranteed employment

### 7.2.5.1. Relationship between Area of Residence and Reason for Attending University.

In this section, question one (place of family residence) and question four (reason for attending university) were cross-tabulated in an attempt to highlight any significant features.

**Table 7.10 Relationship between Area of Family Residence and Reason for Attending University**

Figures in percentages	Parents Wishes	Specialised Knowledge	Improved Job Chances	Interest in Subject	Other
Rural	8.1	34.3	27.3	18.7	11.6
Urban	9.6	36.2	27.1	17.5	9.6
<b>Average</b>	<b>9.1</b>	<b>35.5</b>	<b>27.2</b>	<b>17.9</b>	<b>10.3</b>

Unlike table 7.7, table 7.10 highlights no significant differences between the answers of the rural and urban students.

### 7.2.5.2. Relationship between Type of School Attended and Reason for Attending University.

In this section, question two (type of secondary school attended) was cross-tabulated with question four (reason for attending university). The results are displayed in table 7.11.

The data provided in table 7.11 highlights a number of variances of significance. The most obvious of these is the high percentage of those who attended religious secondary schools who have gone to university due to ‘parents’ wish’. It should be noted that due to the small sample size of those attending theological school, the figures allow some room for error. However the anomaly is still apparent in those attending the



Islam Institute. In this case there seems to be no link between 'parents' wish' and a well paid job, leaving this group of students less open to re-direction into fields of study appropriate to the Saudization programme. Similarly, the students who attended religious-based schools gave a higher than average response rate to 'specialised knowledge'. Once again this reduces the optimism of previous findings, as the 'specialised knowledge' in this case would be probably not be in the field of natural sciences.

**Table 7.11 Relationship between Type of Secondary School Attended and The Reason for Attending University**

Figures in percentages	Parents wishes	Specialised knowledge	Improved Job Chances	Interest in Subject	Other
General Literary	7.2	33.1	29.4	19.8	10.6
General Science	7.7	35.6	24.0	19.2	13.5
Intensive	6.3	37.5	25.0	21.9	9.4
Islam Institute	12.3	41.8	24.6	13.1	8.2
Theological	28.6	35.7	21.4	7.1	7.1
<b>Average</b>	<b>8.8</b>	<b>35.8</b>	<b>26.9</b>	<b>18.1</b>	<b>10.4</b>

Students who attended General Secondary School (Literary) ranked increased job opportunities above the average for this sector, 29.4% compared with 26.9%. This again highlights the importance of this type of school to the Saudization programme, as this group of students ought to be open to influence by the manpower planners.

#### **7.2.5.3. Relationship between Choice of Subject and Reason for Attending University.**

Question three (choice of subject in terms of humanities/social sciences or natural sciences) was cross-tabulated with question four (reason for attending university) in an attempt to discover if there were any significant differences in this respect between humanities/social sciences and natural sciences students.



**Table 7.12 Relationship between Choice of Subject and Reason for Attending University**

Figures in percentages	Parents Wishes	Specialised Knowledge	Improved Job Chances	Interest in Subject	Other
Humanities/ social sciences	10.6	35.6	27.6	15.6	10.6
Natural Sciences	2.9	35.5	25.4	26.8	9.4
<b>Average</b>	<b>8.8</b>	<b>35.6</b>	<b>27.0</b>	<b>18.2</b>	<b>10.4</b>

Two significant variances are highlighted by table 7.12. The first is the differences in the ‘parents’ wish’ column: 10.6% for the humanities/social science students and 2.9% for natural science students. This could support the hypothesis that in Saudi society the natural sciences are seen as harder and therefore less attractive to students and by extension their parents. The link between a university education and well-paid employment seems to be inextricably linked in the mind-set of Saudi citizens, but unfortunately in terms of Saudization there seems to be no extra status in graduating in the natural sciences rather than the humanities or social sciences.

The second variance is reflected in the column ‘interest in subject’, where 26.8% of students undertaking natural science courses gave this as their main reason, compared with only 15.6% of humanities or social science students. This is better news for Saudization as few humanities/social science students appear not to opt for university study out of intrinsic interest in the subject. They could, therefore, be influenced to change. The material in section 3.1 below, however, throws some rather different light on the issue.

### **7.3. SECTION B: REASONS FOR CHOOSING SUBJECT**

This section of the questionnaire contains three questions: Why did you choose the subject you are studying? Would you have preferred to study another subject? If so, which subject? The results are analysed in their own rights and then cross-tabulated with earlier questions.



7.3.1. QUESTION 5: REASON FOR CHOOSING THE SUBJECT

The first question of the second section of the questionnaire asked the students for the primary reason why they chose the subject they were studying. The students were given a choice of three answers: interest in the subject; job opportunities; and lack of alternative courses. Once again, if their preference was not listed they had the alternative to choose ‘other’, detailing their own reason.

Similarly to question four, the aim was to establish the clarity of the students’ objectives in their choice of subject studied and whether these related to the manpower requirements of the Saudi government.

Table 7.13 Primary Reason for Choice of Subject

Primary Reason	Number of Responses	Percentage of Responses
Interest in Subject	425	74.1
Job Opportunities and Training for Profession	81	14.1
Lack of Alternative	42	7.3
Other	24	4.2
Answer Omitted	2	0.3
Total	574	100.0

Table 7.13 provides the statistics on students’ reasons for choosing their subjects. Interest in the subject was by far and away the top response with 74.1% of the answers, while only 14.1% of the respondents cited employment as their prime reason for choosing the subject.

When compared to the answers to the previous question interesting anomalies seem to arise. Whereas only 18.1% of students gave interest in the subject as the main reason for attending university, 74.1% of the same sample cited this as the reason for choosing the subject of study. Similarly, in terms of the importance of employment being the prime reason this fell dramatically from 62.2% for attending university to 14.2% for choice of subject.



It seems clear that students do not perceive there to be a link between their choice of subject and their employment prospects. This is supported by the researcher's own experience when lecturing at university and by the view of al-Ghofaily.<sup>6</sup> The apparent lack of clarity may be related to the lack of counselling at secondary school and the lack of links between the universities and the secondary schools. Students appear to believe that their job prospects are enhanced simply by gaining a degree. No connection is made between choice of subject and employment prospects, leading students to study subjects which are of interest (or even those considered to be easier).

The finding that no more than 14.2% of students associate choice of subject with employment prospects can be used to support the assertion by Sirageldin et al<sup>7</sup> that the Saudi government's attempt to develop a locally-based skilled workforce has been understood only by a minority of students.

In general, the findings of the data support the view put forward by al-Shahri, et al<sup>8</sup> that the universities in Saudi Arabia are not doing enough to meet the manpower demands of the Kingdom.

#### **7.3.1.1. Relationship between Type of School Attended and Reason for Choice of Subject**

In this section, question two (the type of secondary school attended) and question five (the main reason for the choice of subject studied) are cross-tabulated in an effort to discover any significant variances.

Two variances of significance are highlighted by this data. Firstly, those students who attended the General Secondary School (Literary) are slightly less likely than others to chose their subject due to 'interest in the subject', but are more likely to be influenced by 'improved job chances'. However, from the point of view of the successful implementation of Saudization, the figures of 71.2% and 15.9% respectively, are really the inverse of what is needed.



**Table 7.14 Relationship between Type of Secondary School and Reason for Choosing the Subject**

Figures in percentages	Interest in Subject	Improved Job Chances	Lack of Alternatives	Other
General Literary	71.2	15.9	8.5	4.4
General Science	81.9	9.5	5.7	2.9
Intensive	74.1	12.9	6.5	6.5
Islam Institute	76.2	13.1	7.4	3.3
Theological	78.6	14.3	0.0	7.1
<b>Average</b>	<b>74.6</b>	<b>13.9</b>	<b>7.4</b>	<b>4.1</b>

Once again, the students who attended a General Secondary School (Natural Sciences) produced surprising figures. On this occasion, they have produced higher than average results for the option 'interest in subject', 81.9%, compared with 74.6% which, bearing in mind that they all opted for humanities or social science courses, indicates that they seem to have become disillusioned with the natural sciences and become interested in the humanities or social sciences. Their high response rate to 'interest in subject' is reflected in a lower than average rate for 'improved job chances'.

### 7.3.1.2. Relationship between Choice of Subject and Reason for Choosing the Subject

The analysis discussed in this section focuses on the relationship between question three (choice of subject by humanities and social science or the natural sciences) and question five (the reason for choosing the subject of study). The results are displayed in table 7.15.

**Table 7.15 Relationship between Choice of Subject and the Reason for Choosing the Subject**

Figures in percentages	Interest in Subject	Improved Job Chances	Lack of Alternatives	Other
Humanities/ social science	72.8	13.4	9.2	4.6
Natural Sciences	79.1	16.5	1.5	2.9
<b>Average</b>	<b>74.3</b>	<b>14.2</b>	<b>7.3</b>	<b>4.2</b>



The data contained in table 7.15 indicates that the students who opt for the natural sciences are both more interested in their subject and more aware of the improved job prospects than their counterparts in the humanities or social sciences. Once again these figures establish the need to concentrate resources on increasing the awareness among potential students of how subject-choice may affect their job prospects.

The other significant variance occurs in the column 'lack of alternatives'. The humanities/social science students perceived themselves as having no alternative in far greater numbers than did the natural science students - 9.2% as compared to 1.5%. This suggests that the education system is itself pushing students to undertake courses for which there are limited job prospects.

### 7.3.2. QUESTION 6: PREFERRED SUBJECT OF STUDY

Question six asked the students whether or not they would like to change their course if the option was available. This question has not been addressed by either previous research or secondary literature. The objective was to allow the researcher to understand how the students felt about their subject of study and whether the option of changing specialisation while a student is at university ought to be encouraged to assist with the implementation of Saudization. In theory, the chance to change courses is available after the first term or semester, under certain conditions, but the option is rarely exercised. This is due to a number of bureaucratic barriers.

**Table 7.16 Would You Have Preferred to Study a Different Subject?**

Answer	Number of Responses	Percentage of Responses
Yes	305	53.1
No	267	46.5
Answer Omitted	2	0.4
<b>Total</b>	<b>574</b>	<b>100.0</b>

From table 7.16 it is apparent that over half the respondents (53.1%) would like to have studied a different subject. This is a striking result which could be significant in terms of manpower planning, because the students may prefer to change to courses



which are more likely to cater for the country's Saudization needs. This element is analysed in section 7.3.3.

The previous lack of encouragement to change courses supports the thesis of various writers such as Edrees<sup>9</sup> and Al-Hazemi,<sup>10</sup> who have contended that the universities are not yet fully involved in the Saudization programme of manpower development, despite the fact that the Saudization programme has been operating for almost twenty years.

#### **7.3.2.1. Relationship between Choice of Subject and Whether the Students Prefer to Change Subject**

The findings in the previous section indicated that over half the students would have preferred to study a different subject. These figures may be encouraging for the manpower planners, but in order to assess which type of student most prefers to change, question three (humanities/social science or the natural sciences) was cross-tabulated with question six (preference to change subject). The results are displayed in table 7.17.

**Table 7.17 Relationship between Original Choice of Subject and the Desire to Change Subject**

Figures in percentages	Yes	No
Humanities/social science	55.0	45.0
Natural Sciences	47.7	52.3
<b>Average</b>	<b>53.3</b>	<b>46.7</b>

The data from table 7.17 is encouraging because it indicates that humanities/social science students are more open to changing their course of study than are natural science students, 55.0% compared with 47.7%. However, the percentage of natural science who wish to change course is too high, especially if they desire to move to the humanities or social sciences. These findings would suggest that, if Saudisation is the priority, encouragement to change course should be limited to the humanities or social science students.



### 7.3.3. QUESTION 7: NEW SUBJECT PREFERENCE

In the previous section the research established that over half the students would prefer to change their subject of study, and that of these the humanities/social science students were more willing to consider this option. In order to assess whether offering this choice to students would benefit the implementation of Saudization, we need to look at what subjects students would change to. In order to establish this, the students who answered “yes” to the previous question were asked to choose their new preference. Once again, the students were given a list of subjects from which to choose. On this occasion there were nine options, plus ‘other’. The results are displayed in table 7.18.

**Table 7.18 New Preference**

Subject	Humanities, Social Sciences or Natural Sciences	Number of Responses	Percentage of Responses	Valid Percentage
Engineering	Natural Sciences	93	30.5	34.4
Medical science and Support	Natural Sciences	35	11.5	13.0
Agriculture	Natural Sciences	51	16.7	18.9
Computer science	Natural Sciences	10	3.3	3.7
Technical & Vocational	Natural Sciences	5	1.6	1.9
Veterinary Sciences	Natural Sciences	3	1.0	1.1
Business Administration	Social Sciences	27	8.9	10.0
Accounting	Social Sciences	16	5.2	5.9
Social Sciences	Social Sciences	1	0.3	0.4
Other	Any	29	9.5	10.7
Answer Omitted	n/a	35	11.5	n/a
<b>Total</b>		<b>305</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>

The responses indicate that students showed a considerable interest in changing to science subjects. Among those subjects that were highly rated were engineering, medical studies, and agriculture. These results are especially encouraging because engineering attracted no students in the initial survey of subjects chosen, whereas now 93 students would opt for this choice. Furthermore, there was considerable disinterest in the social sciences, except for the more practically orientated courses in business administration and accountancy. In the change of subject the humanities/social



sciences would now attract 64 and the natural sciences 206, a considerable turn around on the original subjects studied, which had figures of 435 and 139 respectively.

These figures, indicating the number of students who given the chance would now opt for a natural science course, should add further motivation to the universities to encourage this type of option. It can be argued from this perspective that the present inflexibility of the universities is hindering Saudization. It becomes imperative that the students be allowed or even encouraged to change their subject of study to those sought by the manpower plan.

### 7.3.3.1. Relationship of Original Choice of Subject to New Preference

In order to analyse further the findings of the previous section, the analysis will now cross-tabulate question three (humanities/social sciences or the natural sciences) with question seven (the students' new preferred subject). The preferred outcome would be to ensure that it is those students who originally chose the humanities or social sciences who were shifting to the natural sciences and to ensure that few students were taking the opposite route. The figures are displayed in table 7.19.

**Table 7.19 Relationship between Original Choice of Subject and New Preference**

Figures in percentages	New Preference	
Original Choice of Subject	Humanities/ social sciences	Natural Sciences
Humanities/social sciences	18.4	81.6
Natural Sciences	17.9	82.1
<b>Average</b>	<b>18.3</b>	<b>81.7</b>

As the table reveals there is no differentiation between the students whose original choice of subject was the humanities/social sciences and the students who chose the natural sciences. In both, approximately eighteen percent of respondents now sought to study the humanities or social sciences. In terms of actual numbers this would represent a loss to the Saudization plan of twelve students from the natural sciences to the humanities or social sciences. However, this is more than offset by the 132



students who would switch from the humanities or social sciences to the natural sciences.

#### **7.4. CONCLUSION**

The first two sections of the questionnaire have produced a number of interesting observations. This section draws out both the positive and negative aspects relevant for the successful implementation of the Saudization of the workforce, highlighted by the earlier analysis. Thereafter, a series of recommendations based on the results is put forward.

##### **7.4.1. AREAS OF WEAKNESS**

Four areas of weakness for the manpower development programme were highlighted by the findings. Firstly there is the major problem of the numbers of humanities and social sciences students compared with natural science students, with a ratio of over three to one. The low level of take-up in the natural sciences was attributed to four factors. The first was the need to achieve higher grades to be allowed to enrol for the natural sciences. The second was that there were more places available to humanities and social science students. These two reasons are of vital importance as the system is apparently blocking students from studying the natural sciences. The third was the perception of difficulty involved with the natural sciences. Finally, the fourth was the length of time required to graduate in the natural sciences, particularly in the field of medicine.

The second weakness found by the study was discovered by cross-tabulating question one with question three. This showed that urban students, who would be expected to be more open to influence by government objectives (having greater access to information), were less inclined to take up natural science courses than their rural counterparts.

A third area of concern was the surprising discovery that all the students who attended General Secondary Schools (Natural Sciences) opted to enrol in humanities and social



science courses at university. Clearly these schools are not performing the role which they should be playing. Less surprisingly, none of the students who attended religiously-based schools opted for the natural sciences.

The fourth weakness was revealed by asking the students to give their reason for choosing their subject of study. Whereas an earlier question indicated that there was a strong link between attending university and hoping to obtain a well-paid job, later analysis discovered the respondents did not perceive that some degree subjects were more likely than others to lead to good jobs. The cause of this was considered to be lack of counselling and a lack of liaison between the secondary schools and the universities.

#### **7.4.2. AREAS OF POSSIBLE BENEFIT**

Three factors of the findings could be seen as being helpful to the implementation of the manpower plan. The first was the relative (and surprising) success of the General Secondary School (Literary) in producing students who wished to study the natural sciences. These students were also more aware of the relationship between attending university, studying the natural sciences and achieving a well-paid job.

The second positive finding was that students were well aware of the advantages of attending university, in terms of job prospects. The drawback, as discussed earlier, was that this awareness did not extend to subject choice.

The most encouraging feature for those involved with the Saudization manpower development was the finding that over 50% of the students would have preferred to change their subject of study. This finding became more impressive when the results were cross-tabulated with other questions, showing that humanities and social science students were open to the idea of changing to natural sciences. Overall, the majority of students would have preferred to study the natural sciences.



### 7.4.3. RECOMMENDATIONS

The analysis of the first two sections of the questionnaire has highlighted four areas of concern and three areas of encouragement to the manpower planners. This section now puts forward several recommendations which can be used to overcome the weaknesses and maximise the returns on the areas of encouragement. The recommendations are discussed with respect to three areas of education within Saudi Arabia, at the level of the state, at the level of the universities (the main concern of this study) and at the level of the secondary schools.

At the level of the state a number of initiatives could be forthcoming. Firstly, the problem associated with the lack of success of the General Secondary Schools (Natural Sciences) must be addressed. A study should be undertaken to establish the reasons why this type of school significantly under-achieves its Literary counterpart in creating enthusiasm for natural sciences.

The second major state initiative must be to increase the numbers studying the natural sciences. Two separate policies require to be followed, although without the success of the first, the second can not be implemented. Thus, there is a vital need to remove the constraints imposed by the present system on the enrolment of natural science students. This policy would involve increasing the number of places for natural science students and ensuring that there is no difference in qualifications for applicants to university courses. The second policy should be aimed at altering the perceptions of citizens that the natural sciences are harder than the humanities or social sciences. To this end, more resources must be employed in putting across the message, using all the media channels available, that the Saudi state and therefore its citizens face major problems unless more science graduates are produced. By concentrating on both the status of a science degree and the better job prospects, in a society such as Saudi Arabia, the message is more likely to be achieved.

Turning to the universities, these can help in four ways. The most important and most easily initiated is increased flexibility in allowing students to alter their chosen subject of study, although constraints would need to be introduced to ensure that no science



students were lost to the humanities or social sciences. Secondly, the universities should ensure that humanities/social science degrees are not easier than natural science degrees. Thirdly, courses should be made available in all the areas required by the manpower planners. Finally, the universities should increase their links with the local schools to ensure that science courses are placed as priority subjects.

The secondary schools themselves can help by offering increased and more informative counselling to their students, in particular emphasising the need to study the natural sciences and attempting to breakdown the perception that the sciences are far more difficult. Finally, the religiously-based secondary schools should ensure that the sciences are given a high priority in their curriculum, perhaps with targets to ensure a certain percentage of their students go on to study the natural sciences.

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## **ENDNOTES**

<sup>1</sup> Although the curriculum for both the General Secondary School (Literary) and the General Secondary School (Natural Science) is the same for first year students, in the second year different curricula are followed, albeit in shared facilities. The graduates acquire either a Literary or a Natural Science qualification.

<sup>2</sup> Badri, A., "Development in the U.A.E.: The Ideal Versus The Real", Unpublished paper presented in al-Wuas Creative Study Competition, 1995, section 4.2.2.

<sup>3</sup> Allen, R.E., The Concise Oxford Dictionary of Current English, Eighth Edition, (Oxford: Clarendon Press, 1990), pp.575, 790 and 1154.

<sup>4</sup> Osama, A.R., The Dilemma of Development in the Arabian Peninsula, (London: Croom Helm, 1987), p.133.

<sup>5</sup> Sirageldin, I.A., Sherbiny, N.A. and Serageldin, M.A., Saudis in Transition: The Challenges of the Changing Labor Market, (New York: Oxford University Press, 1984), p.48.

<sup>6</sup> Al-Ghofaily, F., "Saudi Youth Attitudes Toward Work in Vocational Education: A Constraint on Economic Development", (Ph.D. thesis, University of Florida, 1980).

<sup>7</sup> Sirageldin, I.A., Sherbiny, N.A. and Serageldin, M.A., *op.cit.*

<sup>8</sup> Al-Shahri, A., Al-Shumrani, S. and Ateyah, H., "Al-'Istifadah min al-Khiridjîn al-Djâmi'iyîn fi al-'Adjhizah al-Hukûmiyyah wa al-'awâmil al-Mu'athirah fi dhâlik" [To What Extent do we Benefit from the University Graduates in the Public Sector and What Factors Relate to this Issue?], Paper presented to The University Programme Seminar, Institute of Public Administration, Riyadh, 13th Aug 1988, p.91.

<sup>9</sup> Edrees, M.T., Manpower Development Requirements and the Education System in Saudi Arabia, (Riyadh: Institute of Public Administration, 1984), pp.68-72.

<sup>10</sup> Al-Hazemi, H., "Al-Dawr al-Takhtîrî li Madjlis al-Quwa al-'âmilah fi Tanmiyat al-'âmâlah al-Wataniyyah ma'a al-Tarkîz 'ala al-Ta'lim 'Âli" [The Role of Planning of the Manpower Council in the Development of National Manpower in the Kingdom with Reference to Higher Education], Paper presented to The University Programme Seminar, Institute of Public Administration, Riyadh, 13th Aug 1988, pp.232-233.



# **CHAPTER EIGHT**

## **ANALYSIS OF STUDENTS' OPINIONS RELATED TO EMPLOYMENT OBJECTIVES**

### **8.1. INTRODUCTION**

This chapter analyses and interprets the questionnaire data from questions eight to fourteen. These examine the students' opinions related to employment objectives. It was felt that as the students would soon be seeking employment, their views on employment possibilities and prospects would be important in providing an understanding of manpower problems.

In the analysis the researcher focused broadly on seven issues, namely:

1. choice of whether to work in the public or private sector;
2. particular areas of job interest;
3. reasons behind job choice;
4. geographical preference for workplace;
5. whether students have advance job arrangements to be taken up following graduation;
6. expectations over whether students will obtain a reasonable job fairly easily;  
and
7. how well the students perceived the education they had received equipped them for their preferred job.

These elements are analysed in turn below using tables, cross-tabulation, the interviews discussed in chapter six and literature reviewed in chapter two.

### **8.2. QUESTION 8: PUBLIC SECTOR OR PRIVATE SECTOR?**

In attempting to understand the students' opinions related to employment objectives, students were asked whether they intended to work in the public sector or the private sector. The objective of this question was to establish the numbers and background of the students who wished to work in the public sector. One of the aims of the recent



development plans has been to increase the size of the private sector, which requires more graduates to enter into this sector. Traditionally, this has not been the case with graduates in common with other groups in Saudi Arabian society, who have looked to the public sector for their employment.

The private sector in Saudi Arabia is small in comparison with that in western industrialised nations, with each private sector business requiring a licence from the authorities. The main components of the private sector, excluding agriculture, are based in the urban areas and include construction, contracted-out government projects, commercial enterprises, large scale importers and industry. However, small scale private businesses, such as traders, do exist both in the urban and the rural areas.

The public sector in Saudi Arabia consists of three main groups of organisations. Firstly, there are the twenty one ministries which are based in Riyadh, although most ministries have offices in the provinces and major cities. Each ministry is headed by a politician who is a member of the *majlis al-wuzara* (the Council of Ministers). Al-Tawail notes that

“ministries constitute the backbone of the executive government machinery, as they are vehicles for the implementation of the state’s various policies in the diverse walks and affairs of life (such as defence, security, foreign relations, education, health, economics, et al.).”<sup>1</sup>

Secondly, there are the independent and quasi-independent agencies and departments. Al-Qahtani states:

“today there are 40 independent agencies in the Saudi public sector. These agencies are smaller than ministries and have fewer activities, but their functions are almost as important. The independent agencies are chaired by individuals with ministers, but are not all members of the Council of Ministers.”<sup>2</sup>

These agencies are given various names, such as bureau, board, commission, presidency, agency, etc. Among the most important of these agencies and departments are the General Civil Service Bureau, the General Presidency of Girls Education, and the Presidency of the National Guard. The third category is the public enterprises and ventures, which number forty three. Al-Tawail states:



“The Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, following the example of other States has utilised the model of public enterprises and public ventures for the management of the affairs of some important activities. It is axiomatic that such a model provides a flexibility in some activities that cannot be managed and controlled by the traditional means adopted by the ministries and other government agencies. Most of these public enterprises and ventures are linked via work relations and are attached to one of the state ministries.”<sup>3</sup>

The agencies were originally formed to reduce the level of bureaucracy involved. The public enterprises are actively engaged in the commercial fields, often in the form of joint ventures with private foreign capital. In the petroleum sector the giant ARAMCO company is a leading example of the latter form. The public enterprises also include organisations such as the Public Enterprise for Vocational and Technical Education whose role is to boost the number of students entering into this field.

**Table 8.1 Public or Private Preference**

Place of Work	Number of Responses	Percentage of Responses	Valid Responses
Public Sector	525	91.4	94.1
Private Sector	33	5.8	5.9
Answer Omitted	16	2.8	n/a
<b>Total</b>	<b>574</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>

As can be seen from table 8.1, the public sector received a very high proportion of positive responses in comparison with that of the private sector. The percentage score of the public sector was 88.2% higher than that of the private sector. In the secondary literature, a number of reasons are put forward as to why young people in Saudi Arabia may prefer to work in the public sector. One put forward by Alaki<sup>4</sup> and al-Ghofaily<sup>5</sup> is that work in the private sector is perceived to be more technical and vocational, and less easy. This may provide further support for the finding discussed in chapter 7 that Saudi Arabians are generally not comfortable with employment in the technical and vocational areas.

From the researcher's own experience a number of other reasons for the overwhelming desire of students to work in the public sector include the status which society accords



to some of the jobs in the public sector, especially those of university teachers, officers in the military and security services, and senior officials in the civil service. Furthermore careers in the public sector in general attract better benefits, including holidays and pensions, than private sector jobs. In addition, it is very difficult to sack employees in the public sector, unless they are found to be breaking the law. In contrast, although there are potentially greater monetary prospects in the private sector, the risks which are associated with it (such as over job security: an employee can be sacked within twenty four hours) are usually considered to outweigh the benefits. Al-Towaijri adds a further three reasons:

“There are several reasons why national workers are attracted to the government sector. First, work in the government sector is available in almost every town in Saudi Arabia. Working in the government sector does not require labour mobility, which avoids the costs of leaving the family. Second, there is job security since the government is the only owner of all natural resources and therefore directs the economy. Third, work in the public sector calls for a variety of job skills, making it easy for many people to find jobs in this sector.”<sup>6</sup>

The preference for public sector employment ought to allow the government to implement Saudization in this sector with greater ease. However, it is clear that the government's overall development plans, which are seeking to switch the economic emphasis away from the public sector to the private sector, are damaged by the students' preferences on place of work. This problem requires further study.

#### **8.2.1. THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN CHOICE OF SUBJECT AND PREFERENCE FOR PUBLIC OR PRIVATE SECTOR WORK**

In order to establish if there were any variances within the overwhelming choice to work in the public sector, question three (the choice of subject by humanities/social science or natural sciences) was cross-tabulated with the choice 'private' or 'public.' The results are displayed in table 8.2.

From the table it is apparent that there is no divergence between the students who study the natural sciences and those who study the humanities/social sciences. In order to achieve the ends of the development plan the result would indicate that the



government should spread its resources across all sectors of study in an attempt to encourage students to work in the private sector.

**Table 8.2 The Relationship between Choice of Subject and Preference for Public or Private Sector Employment**

Figures in Percentages	Public	Private
Humanities/Social Sciences	94.1	5.9
Natural Sciences	94.2	5.8
<b>Average</b>	<b>94.1</b>	<b>5.9</b>

### **8.3. QUESTION 9: JOB PREFERENCE**

Students were asked what job they would like to do after graduation. This question contained a list of twelve options, chosen on a basis of a review of the literature presented in the forgoing chapters of the thesis. The respondents were told that they could also name jobs which they felt were not included in the list. The students were asked to write one and two against the list to indicate in order their two preferred jobs. It should be noted here that whereas question eight of the questionnaire (analysed in section 2.0) dealt with preference for the public or the private sector, question nine was concerned with the specific jobs the students were seeking.

#### **8.3.1. FIRST CHOICE OF JOB PREFERENCE**

This section will analyse data related to the first choice made by the students, with the second choice being analysed in the following section. Table 8.3 gives details of students' responses.

From the table it is apparent that the career of school teacher is preferred more than the other jobs combined, with 65.9% of respondents opting for this choice. In terms of the reasons discussed in section 8.2 of this chapter, the status accorded to school teachers is less than university lecturers, the military, the civil service and the professions but this is outweighed by the concrete benefits of the job. These benefits, from the experience of the researcher, are perceived to include shorter than average



working hours, a guaranteed pension, longer vacations, a salary with annual increases and guaranteed promotion.

**Table 8.3 First Choice of Job**

Job Choice	Public or Private Sector	Number of Responses	Percentage of Responses
School Teacher	Public	378	65.9
University Teacher or Lecturer	Public	58	10.1
Military or Security Service	Public	39	6.8
Civil Service	Public	28	4.9
Private Enterprise	Private	28	4.9
Professional (Doctor or Dentist)	Either	27	4.7
Other	Either	7	1.2
Farmer	Private	4	0.7
Medical Support	Public	2	0.3
Technical Worker	Public	1	0.2
Answer Omitted	n/a	2	0.3
<b>Total</b>		<b>574</b>	<b>100.0</b>

In second place, with just over 10% of the choices, is the occupation of university lecturer. In the researcher's experience the perceived status of this career is a major contributory reason, while in conversation with the students the ability to pursue studies in the area of interest to the student was regularly cited. The military or security services were chosen by 6.8% of students. Again the researcher perceives the reason to be associated with a high status job with considerable benefits of salary and guaranteed promotion. Three other job choices all received around 5% of the students' choices. These were civil service, private enterprise and professional (doctor or dentist). Although the civil service outweighs teaching in terms of status, from the researcher's experience it is considered to be a harder career with less benefits. Similarly with professional which has a considerable status but is considered to be a career which calls for a twenty four hour per day commitment. This creates difficulties for Saudi Arabian whose culture demands that time be allocated to helping the extended family.

The highest ranking purely private sector job was that of private enterprise with only 4.9% of students choosing the option. This finding supports the reasons discussed in



section 2.0, in that the possible rewards are considered not to outweigh the risks, such as job security, involved.

### 8.3.2. SECOND CHOICE OF JOB PREFERENCE

The second choice of career for the students is highlighted in table 8.4.

**Table 8.4 Second Choice of Job**

Job Choice	Public or Private Sector	Number of Responses	Percentage of Responses	Valid Percentage
Military or Security Service	Public	80	13.9	26.7
Private Enterprise	Private	65	11.3	21.7
Civil Service	Public	62	10.8	20.7
School Teacher	Public	38	6.6	12.6
University Teacher or Lecturer	Public	33	5.8	11.0
Farmer	Private	8	1.4	2.7
Professional (Doctor or Dentist)	Either	6	1.1	2.0
Technical Worker	Public	4	0.7	1.3
Other	Either	3	0.5	1.0
Medical Support	Public	1	0.2	0.3
Answer Omitted	n/a	274	47.7	n/a
<b>Total</b>		<b>574</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>

The most significant feature of the table is that almost 50% of students omitted this answer. A number of reasons could account for this. Firstly, it could indicate that students prefer to wait for a vacancy to occur in the career of their choice, even if this requires a wait of several semesters. Secondly, because the students are unused to this type of questionnaire survey they may have feared that their answers to the survey would be made available to the authorities, and that their first job might be compromised if they are not seen as highly motivated towards that particular career. Finally, as this was the only question which asked for two choices to be given, the students may have merely misunderstood the question, listing only one choice. In any event, due to the high number of ‘answers omitted’ a third statistical column has been



added to table 8.4 detailing the percentage of valid replies, that is the percentages based on only the students who gave a second choice.

The spread of choices is less concentrated than in table 8.3, with military service (26.7%), private enterprise (21.7%) and the civil service (20.7%) all achieving over 20%. The latter careers are considered to be satisfactory standbys in the event of the graduate failing to achieve one of the superior jobs in the public sector. Other careers which achieved over 10% were school teacher and university teacher. Once again the public sector jobs associated with status and significant job benefits featured strongly.

The major surprise was that private enterprise rated second in the choice of careers. This can perhaps be explained, in part, by the fact that many Saudi Arabians who are employed in safe public sector jobs, also have businesses in the private sector. Technically this is illegal but at present the authorities turn a blind eye to the situation.

When tables 8.3 and 8.4 are compared it is significant that the top places were dominated on both occasions by the public sector careers, in particular civil service, school teacher, military and university lecturer. For second choice, private enterprise attracted a significant minority of options. Occupations of technical worker, farmer and medical support worker were clearly not deemed attractive. In order to gain a more comprehensive picture of the first and second careers the next section will analyse both results in one table.

### **8.3.3. FIRST AND SECOND CHOICE COMBINED**

To achieve an overall impression of the Saudi Arabian students' job preferences their first and second choices were combined. This was achieved by giving the first choice a weighting of 150%, whereas the second choice kept its original score. The percentage score of each job was then worked out against the total of weighted scores. The results are shown in table 8.5

The results indicate that the public sector careers associated with status and job benefits, that is school teacher (52.2%), military (12.0%), university teacher (10.4%)



and civil service (9.0%) were rated in the top five. Private enterprise gained the fourth position with 9.2%, just ahead of the civil service. The relatively poor response to civil service careers indicates a potential problem for the government. Although, a high number of students wishing to work in the public sector has been found, the findings indicate that an imbalance exists, with the choice of school teachers far outweighing that of civil servant.

**Table 8.5 Weighted Job Preferences**

Job Choice	Private or Public Sector	First Choice	Second Choice	Weighted Score	Percentage Score
School teacher	Public	378	38	605.0	52.2
Military or security service	Public	39	80	138.5	12.0
University teacher or researcher	Public	58	33	120.0	10.4
Private enterprise	Private	28	65	107.0	9.2
Civil service	Public	28	62	104.0	9.0
Professional (Doctor or dentist)	Either	27	6	46.5	4.0
Farmer	Public	4	8	14.0	1.2
Other	Either	7	3	13.5	1.2
Technical worker	Public	1	4	5.5	0.5
Medical Support	Public	2	1	4.0	0.3
<b>Total</b>		<b>572</b>	<b>300</b>	<b>1158.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Among the jobs with a score of less than 5% were professional occupations at 4.0%. Although this is accorded a high status, it is (as discussed earlier) considered to be too time-consuming. Farming achieved only 1.2% of the score. While this is a traditional occupation in Saudi Arabia, with only recently at least 50% of its population engaged in this sector<sup>7</sup> since the advent of oil this is no longer a popular choice of career, with the majority of farms now run by non-Saudis. There is now some depopulation of the rural areas. The technical worker category attracted only 0.5% of the total score. This reflects the low status accorded to the job by Saudi culture, as well as less pay, less promotion prospects and the perception of it as hard and dirty work. Finally the option of medical support occupations gained 0.3%. The low attractiveness of this occupation may be accounted for by the same factors as those affecting technical workers.



### 8.3.4. RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN CHOICE OF SECTOR AND CHOICE OF JOB

In this section the relationship between whether the students preferred to work in the public or the private and their first and second preferences for employment are discussed. The data was obtained by cross-tabulating question eight with question nine. This constituted a test to see whether students were consistent in their approach to both questions. The results are shown in table 8.6, which is concerned with the first job choice and table 8.7, illustrating the second job choice.

**Table 8.6 Relationship between First Job Preference and Choice of Sector**

First Job Choice	Number of responses	Private Sector %	Public Sector %
School teacher	369	7.0	93.0
University teacher or researcher	57	0.0	100.0
Military or security service	36	8.3	91.7
Civil service	28	3.6	96.4
Private enterprise	26	3.8	96.2
Professional (Doctor or dentist)	26	3.8	96.2
Other	7	0.0	100.0
Farmer	4	0.0	100.0
Medical Support	2	50.0	50.0
Technical worker	1	0.0	100.0
<b>Average</b>	<b>55.6</b>	<b>5.9</b>	<b>94.1</b>

From table 8.6 it seems that there is confusion in the minds of the Saudi students over the link between jobs and the sector in which they are to be found. For example, 96.2% of students who wished to work in private enterprise indicated that 'they preferred to work in the public sector'. This could, in part, be related to the point raised earlier (in section 8.3.2) that many small businessmen also hold public sector employment, as their main occupation. A similar anomaly can be found in the farming sector with 100% wanting to work in the public sector. Farming attracts considerable government subsidies such as cheap tractors, seeds, free advice and interest-free loans. The size of the government benefits to farming may have caused the respondents confusion in thinking that private sector farming is actually in the public sector. Although the actual numbers of students giving anomalous preferences is small, the



findings would seem to indicate that there seems to be a degree of confusion as to what constitutes the public and private sectors in Saudi Arabia.

**Table 8.7 Relationship between Second Job Preference and Choice of Sector**

Second Job Choice	Number of responses	Private Sector %	Public Sector %
Military or security service	80	8.8	91.3
Private enterprise	62	4.8	95.2
Civil service	60	6.7	93.3
School teacher	36	2.8	97.2
University teacher or researcher	32	6.3	93.8
Farmer	7	0.0	100.0
Professional (Doctor or dentist)	6	0.0	100.0
Technical worker	4	0.0	100.0
Other	3	33.3	66.7
Medical Support	1	0.0	100.0
<b>Average</b>	<b>30</b>	<b>6.2</b>	<b>93.8</b>

As with the previous table, a number of anomalies concerning which jobs are in the private and public sector are apparent. However, in general table 8.7 adds little to the understanding of the question. The only significant variation occurs in 'other' where 33.3% preferred to work in the private sector, but this figure could be misleading due to the small number of three in the sample.

#### **8.4. QUESTION 10: FACTORS WHICH INFLUENCE JOB CHOICE**

A further question explored the factors which influenced students in their job choice. The reason for asking this question was that if the factors which affect choice are known, then it may be possible to use the information to influence students to change their option and encourage them into jobs which are considered vital for Saudization.

The students were given five options to choose from: salary offered; service to society; family advice and pressure; prospect of job satisfaction; and prospect of status acquired. These options were derived from the relevant literature. However, as for similar types of questions in the questionnaire respondents were also invited to list items which they felt were not included in the question.



**Table 8.8 Factors Influencing Job Choice**

Reason Given	Number of Responses	Percentage of Responses
Salary Offered	92	16.0
Service to Society	241	42.0
Family Advice and Pressure	14	2.5
Prospect of Job Satisfaction	108	18.8
Prospect of Status Acquired	97	16.9
Other	18	3.1
Answer Omitted	4	0.7
<b>Total</b>	<b>574</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Table 8.8 shows that the opinions of the sample students were again spread over a number of different reasons which influenced their choice of job. Considering the findings in terms of percentages, 'service to society' was in first place covering 42% of the students. The second choice of 'job satisfaction' was well behind, with 18.8% of the responses. Job satisfaction includes not only factors such as good working environment, helpful colleagues, etc. but also the perks of the job such as vacations, promotion prospects, etc. In conversations with the respondents and through the researcher's experience, it was apparent that the latter elements are not usually associated with the private sector. Therefore this category is considered to be linked to public sector employment.

In third place, closely behind 'job satisfaction' was 'prospect of status acquired' with 16.9%. Once again this is an important element for Saudi Arabians who place employment in a hierarchy of status. At the top of the hierarchy is university lecturer, followed in order by military service, professional (doctor or dentist), and civil service.

The final category which received a significant percentage of responses was 'salary offered', at 16.1%. The salaries in the private sector are usually considered to be higher than those in the public sector but both positive attractions such as 'service to society' and negative elements such as job security associated with the private mitigate against the sector. The salary in the public sector although less is still sufficient to attract graduates. The options of 'family advice/pressure' and 'other' attracted only 5.6% of the choices between them.



In terms of the Saudization proposals these results are extremely important in that over four in ten students consider 'service to society' as the most important reason for choosing the job. Although the pitfalls of true answers has previously been discussed in chapter five, this still represents a significant percentage of students who, in theory, could be open to influence to work in careers consistent with Saudization. The government has to ensure that the work places which need to be filled by Saudi nationals are marketed in terms of 'service to society' in order to influence the students to accept these jobs.

Similarly, the 16.9% of students who gave the response 'status attained' ought to be amenable to government influence. Again it is a question of the correct marketing being applied by the government. Furthermore the 16.0% of students which gave salary as a reason should also be in a position to be influenced by ensuring a suitable differential between non-essential and essential jobs. These two categories totalled almost one third of all respondents and taken with the 'service to society' students indicate that virtually three quarters of all students could be influenced to assist the Saudization programme through the reason for choosing their employment, providing the government alters the present perceptions within Saudi Arabian culture.

#### **8.4.1. RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN CHOICE OF SUBJECT AND REASON TO ACCEPT JOB**

The results obtained in the previous section have been further analysed by cross-tabulating question three with question ten. The aim of this section is to establish any differences between the humanities/social science students and the natural science students, which may be of assistance to the manpower planners involved with the Saudization programme. The results are displayed in table 8.9.

In terms of variance from the average, a number of figures stand out. Firstly, 'family advice and pressure' has responses of 57.1% and 42.9% as opposed to the averages of 75.8% and 24.2%. However the small number of actual responses in this category, 14, make it invalid for drawing any conclusions. A similar situation occurs for 'others'. The grouping 'status acquired' indicates that this is a consideration which attracts the



humanities/social science students in greater than average numbers. This supports the discussion in the previous section which indicated that status is associated with the public sector jobs, which will usually be open to humanities/social science students. The final variance is the category ‘job satisfaction’ which attracts natural science students in greater than average terms. This would seem to indicate that the students define this question not in terms of the perks associated with the job but with the job content.

**Table 8.9 Relationship between Choice of Subject and Reason for Accepting Job**

Figures in Percentages	Humanities/ Social Sciences	Natural Sciences
Salary Offered	78.3	21.7
Service to Society	76.0	24.0
Family Advice and Pressure	57.1	42.9
Prospect of Job Satisfaction	69.4	30.6
Prospect of Status Acquired	81.4	18.6
Other	83.3	16.7
<b>Average</b>	<b>75.8</b>	<b>24.2</b>

**8.4.2. RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN CHOICE OF SECTOR AND REASON FOR CHOOSING JOB**

In order to establish whether manpower planners can focus their attempts at influencing students to work in the private sector, this section relates question eight, private or public sector preference, and question ten, reason for choosing the job. The results are given in table 8.10.

From table 8.10 it is apparent that there is little difference between reasons for accepting a job when these categories are broken down into public and private sector preference. The only category which shows any variance is that of ‘salary offered’, which accounted for 11.1% of those attracted to the private sector as compared with the average of 5.9%. As discussed in section 8.4, this is due to the higher salaries on offer in this sector.



**Table 8.10 Relationship between Choice of Sector and Reason for Accepting a Job**

Figures in Percentages	Public Sector	Private Sector
Salary Offered	88.9	11.1
Service to Society	95.3	4.7
Family Advice and Pressure	91.7	8.3
Prospect of Job Satisfaction	94.4	5.6
Prospect of Status Acquired	95.9	4.1
Other	93.8	6.3
<b>Average</b>	<b>94.1</b>	<b>5.9</b>

#### 8.4.3. RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN JOB CHOICE AND REASON FOR CHOOSING JOB

The final section devoted to question eleven analyses the relationship between job choice and reason for choosing a job. Again the reasoning behind the analysis is to attempt to gauge the significance of job choice for manpower planning and whether any recommendations can be made in light of the findings. Only the first job preference has been analysed as the second choice showed little variation when plotted against the reason for choosing a job. The results are highlighted in table 8.11.

**Table 8.11 Relationship between First Job Preference and Reason for Accepting a Job**

Figures in Percentages	Salary	Society Service	Family	Job Satisfaction	Status	Other
School teacher	14.4	41.2	2.7	20.9	17.9	2.9
University teacher or researcher	29.3	19.0	0.0	19.0	31.0	1.7
Military or security service	10.3	59.0	5.1	10.3	5.1	10.3
Civil service	10.7	57.1	3.6	21.4	3.6	3.6
Private enterprise	14.3	67.9	0.0	7.1	10.7	0.0
Professional (Doctor or dentist)	22.2	48.1	3.7	14.8	11.1	0.0
Other	28.6	0.0	0.0	28.6	28.6	14.3
Farmer	0.0	100.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Medical Support	0.0	50.0	0.0	0.0	50.0	0.0
Technical worker	0.0	0.0	0.0	100.0	0.0	0.0
<b>Average</b>	<b>15.8</b>	<b>42.4</b>	<b>2.5</b>	<b>19.0</b>	<b>17.1</b>	<b>3.2</b>



A number of variances are of interest in table 8.11. It should be noted that due to the small number of responses, the rows relating to 'other', 'farmer', 'medical support' and 'technical worker', and the columns for 'family' and 'other' can be discounted. The reasons for choosing the job of school teacher falls almost on the average scores for all job types. This would indicate that to change the numbers entering this profession the overall factors affecting job choice would have to be addressed. However, those that chose university lecturer are most affected by considerations of salary and status, which would indicate that these two elements of the job should be stressed in trying to attract more Saudi Arabians to this type of employment.

Military or security service are attracted by 'service to society', but surprisingly (according to our discussion in section 8.4) not by status. The civil service also shows a higher than average figure for 'service to society' and lower for status. The variances for private enterprise occur with higher figures than average for 'service to society' and lower for 'job satisfaction'. Finally professional occupations (doctors and dentists) indicate higher than average responses for 'salary' and 'service to society' and lower for 'job satisfaction' and 'status'.

### **8.5. QUESTION 11: PREFERRED GEOGRAPHICAL AREA OF WORK**

In this question the students were asked which geographical area they preferred to work in, urban or rural. This question was set to establish the truth behind the assertion put forward by some writers that employment of Saudis is held back by the preference of Saudis to live in their home areas - which tend to be rural, where there is little employment. Lipsky argues that the family role is still strong within Saudi Arabian society, with the father as leader and the son being expected to return to take up his place within the family group.<sup>8</sup>

In common with western industrialised countries, the majority of employment is based in the urban environment. The responses to this question will allow the researcher to establish whether Saudi students are realistic enough to realise this fact and therefore to state a preference to work in the urban areas.



**Table 8.12 Area of Preference of Work**

Area	Number of Responses	Percentage of Responses
Urban Area	318	55.4
Rural Area	251	43.7
Answer Omitted	5	0.9
<b>Total</b>	<b>574</b>	<b>100.0</b>

The figures in the table 8.12 indicate that most of the students prefer to work in the urban areas. However, a considerable number, 251 or 43.7%, stated a preference for employment in the rural areas. This finding represents an unrealistic attitude of the students to the realities of Saudi Arabian employment. Furthermore, it poses a threat to Saudization, which, at present, requires an urban workforce if the manpower plans are to be successful. The problem could be resolved to a degree by decentralising the public sector. However, this option could be extremely costly in terms of the infrastructure needed to support a massive programme of decentralisation.

#### **8.5.1. RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN PRESENT AREA OF RESIDENCE AND PREFERRED AREA OF EMPLOYMENT**

In order to test the hypothesis that Saudi Arabian students prefer to return to their area of family residence question one (which asked for the area of family residence) was cross-tabulated with question 11 (which asked where the students would prefer to work). The results are displayed in Table 8.13.

**Table 8.13 Relationship between Family Area of Residence and Preferred Area of Employment**

Area of Residence	Preferred Area of Work					
	Urban		Rural		Total	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Rural	149	75.6	48	24.4	197	100.0
Urban	157	44.4	197	55.6	354	100.0
<b>Total/Average</b>	<b>306</b>	<b>55.5</b>	<b>245</b>	<b>44.5</b>	<b>551</b>	<b>100.0</b>

The figures displayed in Table 8.13 illustrate clearly that the assumed hypothesis is incorrect. Surprisingly, the students whose families presently live in the rural areas



prefer by a large majority of over three in four to work in an urban environment. This attitude could be related to a more realistic awareness of the lack of employment for university graduates in the rural areas of Saudi Arabia. The findings produce a further surprise in that the majority of those students presently living in the urban areas express a desire to leave the urban areas in search of work. It should be noted however that almost half the urban students, 44.4%, still preferred to stay in the urban area.

The reason for the attitude of the urban students seeking work in the rural areas could be due to a number of factors. Firstly, the students may be unaware of the lack of jobs in the rural areas. Secondly, although the family now resides in the urban area, there could still be a strong cultural attachment to the rural environment. It may be, therefore, that the students seek to return to their roots. The third reason is closely related to this, in that the rapid modernisation of Saudi Arabia is creating a cultural identity crisis for the students, which they feel could be resolved by working in the rural areas. Finally, a more prosaic reason exists in that it is cheaper to live in the rural areas than the urban areas.

In terms of the Saudization programme the attitude of the rural-resident students is good news for the manpower planners, as there seems to be little effort needed to encourage the rural students to move to the cities where the work is situated. However, there is discouraging news from the point of view of the urban students. If the reason is due to a cultural unease associated with city living, then this may be a foretaste of future problems as modernisation increases the sense of alienation. If, however, it is the case that the students are merely being unrealistic in seeking rural employment, then the lack of employment will encourage these students to stay in the urban environment, thereby creating no difficulties for the manpower planners.

#### **8.5.2. RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN CHOICE OF JOB AND AREA OF EMPLOYMENT PREFERENCE.**

In this section question nine, job preference, is cross-tabulated with question eleven in an effort to attempt to establish if the urban students are aware of the lack of



employment in the rural areas. This may be apparent if, for example, they indicated a preference a job preference to work as a university lecturer rather than farmer (the former being associated with the urban environment whilst the latter is a rural job). The results are displayed in table 8.14.

**Table 8.14 Relationship between First Job Choice and Preferred Area of Employment**

First Job Choice	Number of responses	Urban Preference (%)	Rural Preference (%)
School teacher	377	58.4	41.6
University teacher or researcher	58	60.3	39.7
Military or security service	38	42.1	57.9
Civil service	28	50.0	50.0
Private enterprise	27	51.9	48.1
Professional (Doctor or dentist)	26	46.2	53.8
Other	7	57.1	42.9
Farmer	3	0.0	100.0
Medical Support	2	0.0	100.0
Technical worker	1	100.0	0.0
<b>Average</b>		<b>55.7</b>	<b>44.3</b>

Table 8.14 illustrates that the ratio between urban and rural employment preferences is reasonably consistent across all the choices of employment. Small variances can be found in some categories, such as university lecturer or military service, but these are not significant enough to focus Saudization plans on specific jobs, in terms of urban or rural employment. Cross-tabulation with the second job choice did not highlight any findings of significance.

## **8.6. QUESTION 12: JOB ARRANGEMENTS**

In this question the students were asked whether or not they had already arranged a job that could be taken up on graduation. The question was posed in an attempt to establish at how late in a students' course the manpower planners would still be able to influence the choice of job. The results are displayed in table 8.15.



As can be seen from the table, virtually three-quarters of students had not yet arranged a job. In the research's experience this can be attributed to a number of factors. In the first place, it is usual for the graduates to forward their names to the Civil Service. One of the roles of the Civil Service is to allocate jobs in all the government agencies: the process may take a little time. Related to this, is the Civil Service system of preferential appointments which means that jobs are not allocated until the grade of the qualification is known. The success of one-quarter of the students in having achieved a job would indicate that some were more effective in their ability to gain employment. This aspect will be discussed further in the next two sections, where question three and question nine are cross-tabulated with question twelve.

**Table 8.15 Replies to Whether a Job was already Arranged**

Job Arranged	Number of Responses	Percentage of Responses
Yes	143	24.9
No	430	74.9
Answer Omitted	1	0.2
<b>Total</b>	<b>574</b>	<b>100.0</b>

In terms of the implementation of the Saudization plan, the fact that most students during their final year have not succeeded in obtaining employment is a potential benefit. These students with the correct inducements could be amenable to work in sectors of most benefit to the Saudi Arabian state, if they received appropriate training.

**8.6.1. RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN CHOICE OF SUBJECT AND JOB ARRANGEMENTS**

In the previous section the difference between those students who had arranged jobs and those who had not were highlighted. In order to establish whether there was a difference between humanities/social science students and natural science students question three was cross-tabulated with question twelve. It might be anticipated that natural science students would be more sought after because of the needs of Saudization and therefore ought to have been more successful at arranging employment. The results are displayed in table 8.16.



**Table 8.16 The relationship between Choice of Subject and Job Arrangement**

Figures in Percentages	Humanities/ Social Sciences	Natural Sciences
Yes	74.8	25.2
No	76.3	23.7
<b>Total</b>	<b>75.0</b>	<b>25.0</b>

From the table it is apparent that there is no significant difference between the humanities/social science students and the natural science students in arranging employment before graduation. In terms of manpower planning, this finding would indicate that the success of finding a job prior to graduation does not depend on the choice of subject, but on the ability of the student to make the necessary contacts in the job market.

#### **8.6.2. RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN JOB CHOICE AND JOB ARRANGEMENT**

This section establishes the relationship between job preference and whether the students had already arranged a job, by cross-tabulating question nine with question twelve. The results are given in table 8.17.

**Table 8.17 Relationship between First Job Preference and Job Arrangements**

First Job Choice	Number of responses	Job Arranged (%)	Job Not Arranged (%)
School teacher	377	29.2	70.8
University teacher or researcher	58	27.6	72.4
Military or security service	39	15.4	84.6
Private enterprise	28	10.7	89.3
Civil service	28	3.6	96.4
Professional (Doctor or dentist)	27	18.5	81.5
Other	7	14.3	85.7
Farmer	4	25.0	75.0
Medical Support	2	0.0	100.0
Technical worker	1	0.0	100.0
<b>Average</b>		<b>25.0</b>	<b>75.0</b>



The results displayed in table 8.17 show that the categories of school teacher and university lecturer both have higher-than-average rates of jobs already arranged. As these two classifications are the most substantial in terms of number of responses this leaves the other categories well below average for jobs arranged. This strengthens the conclusion that jobs should be guaranteed prior to the student embarking on his studies, in the appropriate sectors for Saudization providing, of course, that the student graduates.

### **8.7. QUESTION 13: EXPECTATIONS FOR FINDING EMPLOYMENT**

In question 13 the students were asked whether they expected to obtain a reasonable job fairly easily. If the case was that the students easily anticipated finding reasonable employment, this might mean that they were less open to influence to change to a job which would be more appropriate for the needs of Saudi Arabia. Furthermore, if there is a shortage of Saudi Arabian nationals in order to implement the Saudization programme, it should be anticipated that the graduates would find work rather easily. The findings are therefore of considerable interest to the Saudi Arabian manpower planners. The results are shown in table 8.18.

**Table 8.18 Anticipated Ease of Finding a Job**

Yes or No	Number of Responses	Percentage of Responses
Yes	203	35.4
No	365	63.6
Answer Omitted	6	1.0
<b>Total</b>	<b>574</b>	<b>100.0</b>

From table 8.18 it is apparent that almost two-thirds of the students, 63.6%, indicated that they anticipated problems in finding a job, whereas just over one-third thought they would find a job easily. Although there is an acknowledged shortfall of the correctly qualified Saudi nationals needed to implement Saudization, a significant group of university graduates expected to have difficulty obtaining a job. These findings support the work of Sirageldin et al,<sup>9</sup> al-Farsy<sup>10</sup> and Furuya and Clark,<sup>11</sup> where



emphasis is placed on the need to relate the output of the education system to the manpower needs of the Kingdom.

The present university system is not supporting the needs of the Saudi state in terms of the qualifications of the graduates. One possible solution would be for jobs which are required for Saudization to be open to graduates from another discipline who could then be trained on the job. However, this solution would not be possible in the many jobs which require specialist knowledge.

**8.7.1. RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN CHOICE OF SUBJECT AND ANTICIPATED EASE OF FINDING A JOB**

This section focuses more closely on the students' answers to question thirteen. In order to establish the relationship between choice of subject and anticipated ease of finding a job, questions three and thirteen were cross-tabulated. It would be expected that the students in the humanities/social sciences should anticipate more difficulties than their compatriots in the natural sciences. However, the findings have not always borne out the expectations. The results are to be found in table 8.19.

**Table 8.19 Relationship between Choice of Subject and Anticipated Ease of Finding a Job**

Discipline	Easy to Find Job		Hard to Find Job	
	No.	%	No.	%
Humanities/Social Sciences	166	38.5	265	61.5
Natural Sciences	37	27.0	100	73.0
<b>Total/Average</b>	<b>203</b>	<b>35.7</b>	<b>365</b>	<b>64.3</b>

On this occasion a difference is apparent, as can be seen in table 8.21, between the replies of the humanities/social science students and those from the natural sciences. Surprisingly, the result showed that a greater-than-average percentage of natural science students expected to have difficulty in obtaining a job, while a greater-than-average percentage of humanities/social science students expected to obtain a job fairly easily. In the experience of the researcher, this apparent anomaly can be partly



explained by the fact that humanities/social science graduates have a wide range of job choices, whereas the natural science graduates prefer to work in a field directly related to his qualification. The findings make it even more imperative that the authorities attempt to place students in jobs prior to the outset of their studies. Furthermore, it is necessary to ensure that future students are made aware of the reality that natural science graduates are in greater demand than those who study the humanities/social sciences.

### 8.7.2. RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN CHOICE OF JOB AND ANTICIPATED EASE OF FINDING A JOB

This section will analyse the cross-tabulation of question nine (job preference) and question thirteen (anticipated ease of finding a job). Again it would be expected that those students who are seeking employment relevant to the needs of Saudization should be more optimistic than those seeking jobs in the public sector using their humanities/social science qualifications. The results are given in table 8.20.

**Table 8.20 Relationship between First Choice of Job and Anticipated Ease of Finding a Job**

First Job Choice	Number of responses	Easy to Find Job (%)	Hard to Find Job (%)
School teacher	373	35.9	64.1
University teacher or researcher	58	58.6	41.4
Military or security service	38	31.6	68.4
Private enterprise	28	28.6	71.4
Civil service	28	25.0	75.0
Professional (Doctor or dentist)	27	22.2	77.8
Other	7	0.0	100.0
Farmer	4	50.0	50.0
Medical Support	2	0.0	100.0
Technical worker	1	0.0	100.0
<b>Average</b>		<b>35.9</b>	<b>64.1</b>

Of the replies in table 8.20 the only category in which the majority thought that finding a job would be easy were those who sought to become university lecturers. The remaining categories, with the exception of school teaching and farming, indicated



higher than average expectancy of difficulty in obtaining employment. This includes categories such as military service, private enterprise, medical support and technical occupations all of which are vital to the successful implementation of Saudization. It should be noted, however, that the low responses for the classifications farmer, medical support and technical worker make any conclusions drawn only tentative for these particular jobs.

**8.8. QUESTION 14: PERCEIVED RELEVANCE OF EDUCATION TO JOB REQUIREMENTS**

The students were asked whether they thought that the education they had received at university equipped them properly for the job they wanted to fill. The significance of the question is due to the relationship between the relevance of education and a skilled workforce. There are two significant features of this relationship. Firstly, with a good education the student ought to be able to find employment more easily than a person without a similar qualification. Secondly, a relevant education is important because it is a benefit to the needs of the state, in that foreign workers need not be imported. The theme of a relevant education has been the focus of an increasing amount of recent research, in particular al-Arief,<sup>12</sup> al-Farsy,<sup>13</sup> and Looney.<sup>14</sup> All concentrate on the need to overcome the manpower shortage in Saudi Arabia by developing a well-educated population. The results are displayed in table 8.21.

**Table 8.21 Perceived Relevance of University Training in Relation to Proposed Job**

Rating	Number of Responses	Percentage of Responses
Very Good	253	44.1
Good	281	49.0
Adequate	33	5.7
Bad	4	0.7
Very Bad	2	0.3
Answer Omitted	1	0.2
<b>Total</b>	<b>574</b>	<b>100.0</b>



As can be seen from table 8.21, almost all the students thought that the relevance of education received at university to prepare them for their job was at least 'good' or above. Only thirty-nine students rated the education as adequate or below. From the replies it is apparent that the students do not seem to be aware of the amount of on-the-job training which employers find it necessary to use, as was discussed in chapter six (referring to question ten of the interviews). Although this gap between the students' perceptions and the managers' perceptions appears large, it must be noted that there are few jobs which do not use in-job training schemes to acquaint graduates with the particular needs of that employment.

An anomaly appeared in the answers to this question when the researcher in direct interviews asked the students for their perception of the relevance of university in relation to the proposed job. In this case the students argued that they were not adequately prepared for employment. A regularly-cited example was that of teacher training, where the students only received a few hours of teaching experience before graduation. A number of students recommended that they be given at least one semester's experience before graduation. This has since been implemented by a number, though not all, of the colleges. When the answers to question fourteen were cross-tabulated with choice of career, only three out of three hundred and seventy seven students who gave their first choice as school teaching rated their education below adequate. These potential students gave the highest rating in terms of percentages to the reply 'very good', with almost 50% giving this response.

The overwhelming agreement on question fourteen made further investigation by cross-tabulation irrelevant. There were no significant disparities between humanities/social science and natural science students nor was any variance found when cross-tabulating with question nine, which deals with job preference.

## **8.9. CONCLUSION**

This concluding section of chapter eight will draw together the findings from Section C of the questionnaire. As with the previous chapter, the method used will be firstly to highlight the weaknesses which mitigate against the successful implementation of



Saudization. The second part of the conclusion will highlight areas which are considered to be of benefit to the manpower plan that have been evidenced by the questionnaire. The final part will produce a series of recommendations based on the previous analysis.

### **8.9.1. WEAKNESSES**

Four factors which work against the successful implementation of Saudization have been brought to light by the analysis of Section C of the questionnaire. Firstly, in terms of the successful implementation of Saudization in the public sector, the high number of students wishing to work in that sector is good news for the authorities. However, the large numbers are in contradiction to one of the aims of the development plans which seeks to increase the private sector at the expense of the public sector. The reasons for the students desire to work in the public sector included attractive salary, considerable perks, high status and job security. These reasons are closely connected with the weakness unveiled by question nine. In the replies to this question it was discovered that there was an imbalance of the career choices of the students, with too many seeking employment as teachers and too few in other areas.

The third area which creates problems for the manpower planners was highlighted by question eleven. This discovered the fact that a high percentage of students preferred to work in the rural areas, where there is a lack of jobs consummate with the needs of Saudization. This situation is exacerbated by the fact that over 50% of urban students would prefer to work in the rural areas.

The fourth and final problem area revealed by the analysis of Section C of the questionnaire was raised in question fourteen. In the replies to this question the majority of students were content that the education they received at university would be more than adequate for their chosen career. However, these findings were at odds with the results of the interviews conducted with the public sector managers and discussed in chapter six. This indicates that the needs of Saudization are not being met by the universities in terms of appropriately-qualified graduates, despite the perceptions of the students themselves.



### **8.9.2. STRENGTHS**

There were four areas of strength which could be built upon by the manpower planners involved in the Saudization plan that were highlighted by the analysis of Section C of the questionnaire. The first of these was the reasons which the students gave in determining their choice of career. Three reasons, all of which were potentially open to influence by the authorities, accounted for over three quarters of the responses. The reasons were 'service to society', 'status attained' and 'salary offered'. The methods by which the manpower planners could influence the students to change their planned career to one needed by the Saudi state will be discussed in the recommendations.

The second finding of encouragement for the manpower planners was highlighted by question eleven in which it was discovered that, contrary to the views of some commentators, the majority of rural students (75.6%) preferred to work in the urban areas after their graduation. This is of benefit because the majority of employment required by Saudization is in the urban areas.

In question twelve it was discovered that the majority of the students, who it must be remembered were in their final year, did not yet have a job to go to after their graduation. This leaves the manpower planners an opening in which to attract students to a career which will benefit the Saudization plan.

The final potential benefit came to light in question thirteen, where two-thirds of students considered that finding a reasonable job would be difficult. Once again this leaves the door open for the authorities to influence the students towards a career which would benefit Saudization.

### **8.9.3. RECOMMENDATIONS**

Question eight highlighted that the vast majority of students sought to work in the public sector. While this is beneficial to implementing Saudization within the government sector, it creates a problem for the authorities which are presently



attempting to shift the economic emphasis from the public to the private sector. This problem is outside the scope of the thesis and requires further study. Nevertheless, a number of suggestions can be put forward as a result of the analysis of the answers to question ten. Firstly, as 'service to society' is the main motivation in choice of career the Saudi Arabian government must implement a plan to raise the awareness of students and potential students that native employment in the private sector at the expense of non-Saudis is indeed a service to society. Secondly, and perhaps more difficult, is the need to alter the perceptions of Saudi society in relation to the status it accords the different occupations. This is particularly evident in those jobs which are looked down on, such as technical and vocational work, as well as medical support. In terms of salary a differential must be introduced which is in favour of the jobs required for Saudization. Closely associated to this is the need to reduce the perks of the public sector employment, such as length of vacations and guaranteed promotions, and increase those perks offered in the private sector. Job security is another aspect which must be addressed in attempt to bring the private and public sectors into line by, for example, introducing legislation to make arbitrary sacking impossible in the private sector. All these factors could help introduce a 'sense of interest' in the private sector.

The second area that requires to be addressed is the imbalance between the specific choice of jobs. It is not just a question of attempting to persuade graduates to work in the private sector but to address the shortfall in public sector jobs such as medical support or as technicians. Most of the measures discussed in relation to public and private sector employment will also be of use in this aspect, in particular addressing the questions of status, salary and perks. These jobs must be recognised as those vital to Saudization, and must be given extra publicity in an attempt to gain status. For the jobs which are considered to be time-consuming, a method must be found to allow those involved time off to undertake their family duties.

The problem raised by question eleven (large numbers of urban-dwelling students preferring to work in rural areas) could be addressed by decentralisation of industries from the planned industrial cities to the rural environment. This would be an expensive option, in that improvement of the rural infrastructure would be necessary. A cheaper method would be to attempt to alter the desires of the students by stressing the needs



of the Saudization plan and adopting the necessary inducements to gain acceptance of the plan. This need is seemingly recognised by the rural students who participated in the survey.

Questions twelve and thirteen brought home a number of potential benefits for the manpower planners caused by the students having problems in gaining a reasonable job. One method which could be used to solve this problem would be to set the students up in a job before they commence their studies. This would have a number of benefits: the students would not need to worry about obtaining a job after graduation, the needs of Saudization could be assisted by guaranteeing only those jobs relevant to the plan and the students could receive experience of the job during their vacations. This latter benefit would overcome the problem highlighted in chapter six, concerning the lack of appropriate skills of the graduates. A further difficulty was highlighted by question twelve in that students were apparently willing to wait several semesters before gaining the employment of their choice. Some form of incentive should be introduced to ensure that students start working immediately after graduation. Finally, those students who have not obtained employment immediately should be encouraged to undertake a career that is not necessarily their first choice but one that is more appropriate to the needs of Saudization.

The final recommendation of this chapter comes out of the analysis of question fourteen, which highlighted the shortfall in the skills attained by graduates for their chosen careers. The universities must tie the courses they offer to the needs of the manpower planners. Furthermore, the courses themselves must be written with regard to the needs of the managers of the jobs that the students will undertake.

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## **ENDNOTES**

<sup>1</sup> Al-Tawail, M.A., Public Administration in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, (Riyadh: Institute of Public Administration, 1995), p.85.

<sup>2</sup> I-Qahtani, S.S., "Career Choice of Saudi Arabia Male Public Sector Employees : Career Orientation and Individual Demographic Characteristic", (Ph.D. thesis, University of Pittsburgh, 1991), pp.7-8.

<sup>3</sup> Al-Tawail, M.A., *op.cit.* p.91.

<sup>4</sup> Alaki, M.A., "Industrial Vocational Education in Saudi Arabia: Problems and Prospects", (Ph.D. thesis, University of Arizona, 1972).



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- <sup>5</sup> Al-Ghofaily, F., "Saudi Youth Attitudes Toward Work in Vocational Education: A Constraint on Economic Development", (Ph.D. thesis, University of Florida, 1980).
- <sup>6</sup> Al-Towaijri, H., "The Labour Market in Saudi Arabia: Family Effects, Compensating Wage Differentials, and Selectivity Bias", (Ph.D. thesis, University of Oregon, 1992), pp.11-13.
- <sup>7</sup> Birks, J.S. and Sinclair, C.A., Arab Manpower: The Crisis of Development, (London: Croom Helm, 1980), p.160.
- <sup>8</sup> Lipsky, G.A., Saudi Arabia: Its People, Its Society, Its Culture, (New Haven: Hraf Press, 1959), p.4.
- <sup>9</sup> Sirageldin, I.A., Sherbiny, N.A. and Serageldin, M.A., Saudis in Transition: The Challenges of the Changing Labor Market, (New York: Oxford University Press, 1984).
- <sup>10</sup> Al-Farsy, F., Modernity and Tradition: the Saudi Equation, (London: Kegan Paul International, 1990).
- <sup>11</sup> Furuya, K. and Clark, R.C., "Labour Force Developments and Emerging Human Resources Policies in Japan", in Ogawa, N., Jones, G.W. and Williamson J.G., Human Resources in Development Along the Asia - Pacific Rim, (Oxford: Oxford University Press, 1993).
- <sup>12</sup> Al-Ariefy, A.M., "The Civil Service of Saudi Arabia and the Manpower Shortage: A Study of the Need and Impact of non-Saudi Manpower in Civil Service", (M.A thesis University of California State, Chico, 1987).
- <sup>13</sup> Al-Farsy, F., op.cit.
- <sup>14</sup> Looney, E.R., "Patterns of Human Resource Development In Saudi Arabia", Middle Eastern Studies, vol. 27, no. 4, October 1991.



## CHAPTER NINE

### ANALYSIS OF STUDENTS' OPINIONS RELATED TO ATTITUDE TO NON-SAUDI WORKERS

#### 9.1. INTRODUCTION

The successful implementation of the Saudization of the workforce depends on many factors. One of these factors is the attitude of Saudi Arabians to the presence of the huge number of non-Saudis in the workforce and whether they understand the reasons behind the government's attempt to reduce the dependence of the Saudi economy on these non-Saudis. The reasons for the influx of foreign workers have been discussed in the literature review by Nehme.<sup>1</sup> The scale of the problem can be seen from the figures released by the government in December 1995, which highlight the number of work permits issued in the previous three years according to type of occupation. These figures are illustrated in table 9.1

As can be seen from table 9.1 the number of foreign workers grew from 1993 to 1994, the latest year for complete figures. However, the number of permits issued do not reflect the complete picture. According to the population census of 1992 there were 5,985,300 foreigners in the country.<sup>2</sup> These figures were still increasing as can be seen by the figures released by the Ministry of Interior at the end of 1995 which showed that there were 6,256,323 foreigners from 190 nationalities in Saudi Arabia at that time.<sup>3</sup> These figures were gathered by the Manpower Council at the Ministry of Interior from the various agencies and ministries which employ expatriate workers. This should be compared with the official population figures of 12,304,825 Saudi nationals.<sup>4</sup> The numbers and percentages of those nationalities with 1% and over of the foreign workforce are detailed in table 9.2. The ethnicity and religion highlighted in the table are those which are dominant in that country.

According to the recent study by al-Ghaith and al-Mashugh the number of foreign workers are set to increase in the Sixth Development Plan, in both the private and



public sectors. The authors state that even if Saudi Arabia were to recruit all its own available workers by the end of the Sixth Development Plan only 41% of the workforce would be Saudi Arabians, with 95% of the private sector employment being filled by non-Saudis. Al-Ghaith and al-Mashugh calculate that by the end of the Sixth Development plan in the year 2000 the number of foreigner workers will have increased to 828,200 in the public sector and 6,232,200 in the private sector.<sup>5</sup>

**Table 9.1: Work Permits Issued to Non-Saudis by Occupation, 1993-95**

Occupation	1993	1994	1995
Chemical Geologist	374	1269	n/a
Engineering	8552	8215	n/a
Accountants & Consultants	7353	8324	78958 <sup>6</sup>
Doctors, Nurses & Pharmaceuticals	18805	19341	n/a
Education	14857	11363	n/a
Foreign Students	3634	4642	2373
Translators, Journalists & Auditors	706	1921	n/a
Business Managers & Administrators	4385	5244	1531
Clerical Workers	3776	4146	4342
Professional & Scientific	14896	15159	n/a
Business Workers	13192	20690	23161
Public Service Workers	230246	239434	171369
Agriculture & Fishing	78709	79527	62365
Skilled Manual	25615 <sup>7</sup>	257739	n/a.
Unskilled Manual	348456	359284	367084
Others	31749	47179	56060
<b>Total<sup>8</sup></b>	<b>1062305</b>	<b>1095450</b>	<b>767243</b>

n/a - not available.

Source: Ministry of Interior, "Al-'Amalah al-'dijnabiyyah wa Barnamadj al-Sa'wadah" [The Non-Saudi Workers and Saudization Programme], *Asharq Al-Awsat*, no. 6217, 6th Dec 1995, p.13.

If the problems, of dependency on foreign manpower in vital sectors of the economy are understood by students, it may be assumed that they could be motivated to choose occupations where there is a clear need to reduce foreign manpower. Therefore, in this chapter, the research focuses on the students' attitudes to the employment of non-Saudis, concentrating in particular on their perceptions of the current position of foreign workers in the Saudi Arabian workforce; the categories of employment which the students consider ought to be reserved exclusively for Saudis; and the nationalities which they would prefer to be employed within the Saudi work force.



**Table 9.2: Foreign Nationals Resident in Saudi Arabia, 1995.**

Nationality	Number	Percentage
India	1,228,652	19.6
Egypt	1,195,189	19.1
Pakistan	778,668	12.4
Philippines	450,967	7.2
Bangladesh	446,282	7.1
Yemen	424,398	6.8
Indonesia	249,458	4.0
The Sudan	242,508	3.9
Syria	168,354	2.7
Jordan	155,410	2.5
Sri Lanka	135,246	2.2
Kuwait	122,519	1.9
Palestine	110,611	1.8
Turkey	92,258	1.5
Nomadic Peoples	61,246	1.0
Others	394,557	6.3

Key:- Yellow:- Arab and Muslim

Green:- Non-Arab Muslims

Blank:- Non-Arab, Non-Muslim

Source: Ministry of Interior, "Al-'Amalah al-'djabiiyyah wa Barnamadj al-Sa'wadah" [The Non-Saudi Workers and Saudization Programme], *Asharq Al-Awsat*, no. 6217, 6th Dec 1995, p.13.

## **9.2. QUESTION 15: ATTITUDES TO THE EMPLOYMENT OF NON-SAUDIS**

The students were asked to rate their perceptions of the employment of non-Saudis in Saudi Arabia at the present time on a scale of excessive, adequate or inadequate. From the literature on this subject, Shaw and Long in 1982 argued that the considerable size of the non-Saudis in the workforce will make their replacement a long term proposition.<sup>9</sup> This long term view is supported by the more recent writing of al-Ghaith and al-Mashugh, who contend that rather than attempt to implement the Saudization programme across all the sectors in Saudi Arabia, the manpower planners should concentrate on those areas most vital to the Saudi state.<sup>10</sup> The vital sectors to be protected would need to be decided on the basis of what is perceived to be the most dangerous effect of the employment of foreigners and where the foreign workers are best placed to help with development of the Saudi Arabia. For example, the need to reduce foreigners in the security forces would be deemed necessary for those concerned with the internal security of the Saudi state.



**Table 9.3: The Students' Opinion on the Employment of Non-Saudis**

Rating	Number of Responses	Percentage of Responses	Valid Percentage
Excessive	423	73.7	76.4
Necessary	128	22.3	23.1
Inadequate	3	0.5	0.5
Answer Omitted	20	3.5	n/a
<b>Total</b>	<b>574</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>

From table 9.3 it is apparent that the vast majority of students, 76.4%, are of the opinion that there are too many non-Saudis in the workforce in Saudi Arabia. It may be assumed that these students would be more receptive to the idea that their chosen occupation should reflect concerns over reducing foreign labour.

That said, however, it is significant that 23.1% of students who answered the question thought that the existing numbers of non-Saudis employed were necessary. These students support the view of al-Ariefy<sup>11</sup> that the numbers of foreign workers currently employed are necessary for the development of the Saudi economy. It should be noted that these respondents may still be aware of the possible long term dangers to the Saudi Arabian economy, culture and identity posed by these non-Saudi workers. If this was the case then these students might still be open to influence to assist with the implementation of the Saudization plan. Only three of the respondents reckoned that there were inadequate numbers of foreign workers in the Saudi Arabian economy.

#### **9.2.1. THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN CHOICE OF SUBJECT AND ATTITUDE TO THE EMPLOYMENT OF NON-SAUDIS.**

In order to establish whether the attitudes of the students to the employment of non-Saudis was related to the choice of discipline humanities/social sciences or the natural sciences questions three and fifteen were cross-tabulated. The results are displayed in table 9.4.

The figures illustrate that the choice of subject does not significantly affect the attitudes of the students to the employment of non-Saudi. In both the categories



‘excessive’ and ‘necessary’, the split between the humanities/social science students and the natural science students was close to the average of 75.8% and 24.2% respectively. Although there is an apparent discrepancy in the category of ‘inadequate’ the number of responses is only three, thus reducing the validity of any variance.

**Table 9.4: The Relationship between Choice of Subject and Attitude to Employment of Non-Saudis**

Figures in Percentages	Humanities/ Social Sciences	Natural sciences
Excessive	76.4	23.6
Necessary	73.4	26.6
Inadequate	100.0	0.0
<b>Average</b>	<b>75.8</b>	<b>24.2</b>

### **9.2.2. THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN CHOICE OF JOB AND ATTITUDE TO THE EMPLOYMENT OF NON-SAUDIS**

In this section question nine (concerning first choice of job) and question fifteen (attitude to the employment of non-Saudis) were cross-tabulated in an effort to throw further light on the subject of migrant workers in Saudi Arabia. The results are displayed in table 9.5.

From table 9.5 it is apparent that the number of responses in the categories of farmer, technical worker, medical support and other are low. This reduces the significance of any variance based on these figures. Therefore these four categories will be ignored for the purposes of this section. The remaining categories highlight that those people who would prefer to be employed in the military or security services have the greatest response in percentage terms for the category ‘excessive’. The reason for this could be related to their fear of the potential security threat to the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia by the presence of foreign nationals in the country.

The only other job choice which highlights any significant deviance is that of private enterprise. The respondents in this section were below the average for the category ‘excessive’ and consequently above the average of 23.1% for the category ‘necessary’.



This may reflect the perception in Saudi Arabia that Saudis are not suited to the disciplined approach to work required by the private sector. Those respondents who wished to be professional (doctor or dentist) showed a slight deviation with a greater emphasis on the 'necessary' rather than the 'excessive' category in terms of average percentages. Again this reflects earlier discussions which indicated that it was difficult to attract Saudi Arabians to this sector of employment, due to the demands of the job. It should be noted that the Dean of the Medicine College in King Saud University when interviewed by al-Yamamah magazine in 1994 stated that "we need more than forty years to Saudi-ize the profession of doctor."<sup>12</sup>

**Table 9.5: Relationship between Choice of Job and Attitude to Non-Saudi Employment**

	No. of Responses	Excessive	Necessary	Inadequate
Private Enterprise	26	61.5	34.6	3.8
Farmer	4	100.0	0.0	0.0
Civil Service	27	74.1	25.9	0.0
Technical Worker	1	100.0	0.0	0.0
Medical Support	2	0.0	100.0	0.0
Military or Security Service	35	82.9	17.1	0.0
School Teacher	367	77.4	22.3	0.3
University Lecturer	58	75.9	22.4	1.7
Professional (Doctor or Dentist)	26	73.1	26.9	0.0
Other	7	71.4	28.6	0.0
<b>Average</b>	<b>553</b>	<b>76.3</b>	<b>23.1</b>	<b>0.5</b>

These results would tend to indicate that the students were influenced, overall, by their perceptions of Saudi Arabian culture rather than by the needs of the state. In turn this illustrates that the manpower planners have to the attitudes of the Saudi Arabians to sectors of employment which currently have a low attraction for the local people.



### **9.3. QUESTION 16: RESERVED CATEGORIES OF EMPLOYMENT FOR SAUDIS**

As discussed previously a number of writers have acknowledged that the immediate replacement of all non-Saudis in the workforce in Saudi Arabia can not be achieved in the short term. In acknowledgement of this argument the students were asked which categories of employment should be reserved exclusively for Saudi Arabians. A list of eight categories which in the researcher's experience were the sectors which accounted for the highest employment of foreign workers were listed in the question. The students were requested to tick every category which they considered should be reserved. The results are displayed in table 9.6.

**Table 9.6: Categories of Employment to be Reserved for Saudis**

Category of Employment	Number of Responses	Percentage of Respondents
Civil Service (Managerial)	398	69.3
Professional	278	43.2
Civil Service (Clerical)	219	38.2
Private Business	188	32.8
Technical Support in Public Sector	133	23.2
Industrial and Service Labour	117	20.4
Farm Labourer	115	20.0
Domestic Service	29	5.1

From table 9.6 it is apparent that the main category that the respondents wish to see be reserved exclusively for Saudi Arabians is the civil service (managerial). It may be suggested that this may be a case of self-interest because as was seen in the previous chapter this is one of the main jobs which the Saudis prefer. The argument that the students are motivated by self-interest would seem to be supported by the low level of responses in the categories which are considered to be low status (hard or dirty manual work). In these categories fall domestic service with the lowest level of responses at 29, farming labourer at 115, industrial and service labour with 117, and finally technical support in the public sector with 133 responses. All of these received less than 25% of the responses despite the vast majority of the students arguing that the non-Saudi employment was excessive. However, information provided in section 9.3.4



below will throw doubt on the self-interest argument, and will suggest that cultural factors are more important.

The second category with 278 responses (43.2%) was the professions, which include teachers and university lecturers. Again these jobs are highly sought after by Saudi Arabian graduates. The civil service (clerical) received 219 responses (38.2%) which, compared with the 398 responses received for the managerial sector of the civil service, would further indicate that the students were motivated more by self-interest than by concern for the Saudization programme as the graduates would be attempting to gain employment in the latter rather than the former sector of the civil service.

188 students thought that the private business category should be reserved exclusively for Saudi Arabians. However, perceptions among the owners of private businesses are that Saudi Arabians are generally not disciplined enough to work in this sector as was apparent in Chapter Six when analysing the interviews. The private sector employers therefore tend to seek non-Saudis as employees.

### **9.3.1. RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN CHOICE OF SUBJECT AND RESERVED CATEGORIES OF EMPLOYMENT FOR SAUDIS**

This section attempts to establish if there is a difference between the attitudes of the students who study the humanities/social sciences and attitudes of the students who study the natural sciences to the question of which categories of employment ought to be reserved exclusively for Saudi Arabians. This was achieved by cross-tabulating questions three and sixteen. The results are displayed in table 9.7.

Humanities and social science students were more in favour of reserving private business and domestic service than their counterparts in the natural sciences, with figures of over 80% of the responses for these categories as compared with the average of 75.8%. The only other category which showed any deviation from the average was that of civil service (clerical), where the natural sciences side achieved the highest level of response in comparison to the humanities/social science students.



However in general there was little difference within each category between the ratio of humanities/social science students to natural science students.

**Table 9.7: Relationship between Choice of Subject and Reserved Categories of Employment for Saudis**

Category of Employment	Number of Responses	Humanities/ Social sciences	Natural Sciences
Civil Service (Managerial)	398	74.9	25.1
Professional	278	75.9	24.1
Civil Service (Clerical)	219	71.7	28.3
Private Business	188	81.4	18.6
Technical Support in Public Sector	133	73.7	26.3
Industrial and Service Labour	117	76.1	23.9
Farm Labourer	115	77.4	22.6
Domestic Service	29	82.8	17.2
<b>Average</b>		<b>75.8</b>	<b>24.2</b>

**9.3.2. THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN CHOICE OF JOB AND RESERVED CATEGORY OF EMPLOYMENT FOR SAUDIS**

This section aims to establish whether the hypothesis put forward in section 9.3, that the students were motivated to respond to question fifteen by their own self-interest is confirmed by reference to the students’ own job choices. In order to achieve a statistical analysis of this theory, question nine (first choice of job) has been cross-tabulated with question fifteen. Due to the complexity of the table, a further table (9.8) was introduced. This table highlights the relationship between the first choice of job sought by the students and the average number of responses to the question of which job ought to be reserved exclusively for Saudi Arabians. For example, from table 9.8 there were 369 respondents who preferred the job of school teacher as their first choice of career. Between them these students answered question fifteen with a total of 985 responses for the choice of sector to be reserved exclusively for Saudi Arabians. This was an average of 2.68 per respondent. In table 9.9 the percentage breakdown of the 985 responses is recorded across the different categories. Thus the highest responses were recorded for exclusivity of the civil service (managerial).



**Table 9.8: Numbers Involved in Cross-Tabulation of Question Nine and Question Fifteen**

	Private Enterprise	Farmer	Civil Service	Technical Worker	Medical Support	Military/ Security Service	School Teacher	University Teacher	Professional (Doctor or Dentist)	Other	Average
No. of Responses to 1st. Job Choice	26	4	28	1	2	36	369	57	26	7	556
No. of Responses to Reserved Jobs	84	14	54	3	2	91	985	148	63	26	1470
Average Response	3.23	3.50	2.14	3.00	1.00	2.53	2.68	2.60	2.42	3.71	2.65

**Table 9.9: Relationship between First Choice of Job and Reserved Category of Employment**

Figures in Percentages	Private Enterprise	Farmer	Civil Service	Technical Worker	Medical Support	Military/ Security Service	School Teacher	University Teacher	Professional (Doctor or Dentist)	Other	Average
Private Business	19.0	14.3	16.7	33.3	0.0	16.5	11.9	12.8	7.9	15.4	12.8
Civil Service (Managerial)	21.4	14.3	25.9	33.3	100.0	29.7	27.1	25.7	33.3	23.1	26.9
Professional	20.2	28.6	20.3	33.3	0.0	20.9	18.5	20.3	14.3	15.4	18.9
Technical Support (Public Sector)	10.7	7.1	9.3	0.0	0.0	7.7	9.1	6.8	11.1	11.5	9.0
Civil Service (Clerical)	13.1	7.1	14.8	0.0	0.0	11.0	15.3	11.5	20.6	23.1	14.8
Farm Labourer	8.3	14.3	3.7	0.0	0.0	4.4	8.0	10.8	4.7	3.8	7.8
Industrial/Service Labourer	6.0	14.3	9.3	0.0	0.0	7.7	8.2	8.1	4.7	7.7	8.0
Domestic Service	1.2	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	2.2	1.8	4.1	3.2	0.0	2.0
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0



A further factor which affects the figures in both tables is the size of the response in the category school teacher when compared with other categories. The strength of the number of responses in this category tends to mean that the answers given by these students will be close to the average. This factor will make it difficult to produce any significance variances in the column associated with school teachers.

The findings highlighted in table 9.8 illustrate that the level of responses for technical worker and medical support are too small on which to base any analysis. The sectors of farmer and 'other' are also small making any conclusions on these sectors only tentative. These comments also apply to table 9.9. The overall average of responses was 2.65 sectors which should be reserved exclusively for Saudi Arabians. Those students who prefer to be employed in private enterprise, as farmers and as 'others' record a higher than average propensity to reserve more sectors for Saudi Arabians. On the other hand the students who wish to be employed in the civil service and as professional (doctor or dentist) record lower than average scores.

Turning to table 9.9 it can be seen that that within each of the sectors which have been chosen as potential areas of employment to be reserved exclusively for Saudi Arabians (column 1) there are a number of deviations from the average given in column 12. Starting with the sector 'private business', the highest rating comes from those students who chose private enterprise as their first choice of career. This therefore is a validation of the theory that the students were motivated by self-interest when answering question fifteen. Students who want to be employed as school teachers and as professional (doctor or dentist) record below average scores.

In the sector civil service (managerial), displayed in the third row, professional (doctor or dentist) and military/security service produce higher than average scores, whereas private enterprise is significantly below average. If the responses were based on pure self-interest then the civil service column should have shown a higher than average score, which is not the case. This would tend to support the hypothesis that a number of different factors affect the choice of reserved categories.



The third sector to be analysed is professional. The results shown in the fourth row show the influence of the number of respondents with all the major first job choice categories recording higher than average scores, except school teachers and professional (doctor or dentist). Again in this sector if self-interest was the main motivating factor the associated columns 'school teacher' and 'professional' should have shown a higher than average score, which is not the case.

Private enterprise and professional (doctor or dentist) both score higher than average on the question of exclusivity for the sector technical support (public sector). On the other hand lower scores are posted in the columns university teacher and military/security service.

The fifth sector, civil service (clerical) once again shows that profession (doctor or dentist) is at variance with the norm. On this occasion with a percentage of 20.6 as compared with the average of 14.8%. Lower than average figures are apparent for the military/security service and university teachers. In the case of farm labourer the higher than average category was university teacher whereas the lower than average figures were recorded against civil service, profession (doctor or dentist) and military/security service. In the sector of industrial/service labourer the civil service column shows a higher than average score, while private enterprise and professional (doctor or dentist) gave lower than average scores.

Overall it is apparent from this cross-tabulation that there seems to be little evidence to support the hypothesis that the students were motivated by self-interest when choosing which employment sectors they thought should be reserved exclusively for Saudi Arabians.

#### **9.4. QUESTION 17: PREFERENCE OF NON-SAUDI EMPLOYMENT**

In view of the widely acknowledged need for the presence, in the short term at least, of non-Saudi in the workforce in Saudi Arabia, the students were asked to rank in order of preference which nationalities they would prefer to be employed. The respondents were given a list of nine nationalities which, according to the researcher's information,



were the main countries from which the migrant workers originated. The nationalities were Egyptian, Palestinian, Yemeni, Sudanese, Pakistani, Indian, Bangladeshi, Filipino, Korean. A final category could be chosen which indicated that the preference should not be on the basis of nationality but on the best qualified person for the vacancy.

The results are displayed in tables 9.10 to 9.19 inclusive. In general, it should be noted that the nearer to the first preference the mode and median are, the more popular was the choice of nationality. However, in order to gain an accurate assessment of the overall preference of the students the preferences were awarded points. For each first preference ten points were given, for each second preference nine points, for each third preference eight points and so on until each tenth preference received one point. These scores are displayed in the third statistical column of the following tables.

**Table 9.10: Egyptian**

Preference	Number of Responses	Percentage of Responses	Score
First	81	17.7	810
Second	80	17.5	720
Third	62	13.5	496
Fourth	47	10.3	329
Fifth	32	7.0	192
Sixth	34	7.4	170
Seventh	25	5.5	100
Eighth	27	5.9	81
Ninth	61	13.3	122
Tenth	9	2.0	9
<b>Total</b>	<b>458</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>3029</b>

Mode: First Preference                      Median: Fourth Preference

As can be seen from table 9.10, Egyptian nationals scored above 10% on each of the first four preferences. This fact, along with the high mode and the relatively high median scores indicated that the Egyptians were a popular choice as non-Saudi employees. The Egyptians are perceived to be highly skilled and suitable for high positions within the professions.



The figures highlighted by table 9.11 indicate that the highest responses for Palestinian workers are as third and fourth preferences. The mode and median are also mid-ranking. Furthermore only 418 respondents chose to give a ranking to the Palestinians, indicating a lower level of acceptance than expected.

**Table 9.11: Palestinian**

Preference	Number of Responses	Percentage of Responses	Score
First	11	2.6	110
Second	32	7.7	288
Third	65	15.6	520
Fourth	68	16.3	476
Fifth	41	9.8	246
Sixth	37	8.9	185
Seventh	48	11.5	192
Eighth	59	14.1	177
Ninth	51	12.2	102
Tenth	6	1.4	6
<b>Total</b>	<b>418</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>2302</b>

Mode: Fourth Preference      Median: Fifth Preference

**Table 9.12: Yemeni**

Preference	Number of Responses	Percentage of Responses	Score
First	67	15.0	670
Second	96	21.4	864
Third	79	17.6	632
Fourth	70	15.6	490
Fifth	39	8.7	234
Sixth	26	5.8	130
Seventh	21	4.7	84
Eighth	26	5.8	78
Ninth	22	4.9	44
Tenth	2	0.4	2
<b>Total</b>	<b>448</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>3228</b>

Mode: Second Preference      Median: Third Preference

From table 9.12 it is apparent that the Yemeni nationals received a high number of endorsements in the first four preferences. This resulted in a high mean and mode,



which taken with the total responses gave a favourable ranking to this nationality. This level of acceptance could be related to the cultural and religious similarities, as well as the geographical proximity of the Yemen.

**Table 9.13: Sudanese**

Preference	Number of Responses	Percentage of Responses	Score
First	260	53.4	2600
Second	98	20.1	882
Third	54	11.1	432
Fourth	34	7.0	238
Fifth	20	4.1	120
Sixth	10	2.1	50
Seventh	9	1.8	36
Eighth	0	0.0	0
Ninth	2	0.3	4
Tenth	0	0.0	0
<b>Total</b>	<b>487</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>4362</b>

Mode: First Preference                      Median: First Preference

**Table 9.14: Pakistani**

Preference	Number of Responses	Percentage of Responses	Score
First	11	2.5	110
Second	27	6.2	243
Third	54	12.4	432
Fourth	77	17.7	539
Fifth	99	22.7	594
Sixth	69	15.8	345
Seventh	49	11.2	196
Eighth	26	6.0	78
Ninth	23	5.3	46
Tenth	1	0.2	1
<b>Total</b>	<b>436</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>2584</b>

Mode: Fifth Preference                      Median: Fifth Preference

Over 50% of the respondents who ranked the Sudanese chose this nationality as their first preference. This accounts for the high mode and median scores, and the high



overall score of 4362 shown in table 9.13. The Sudanese are considered to be trustworthy and reliable workers, with a similar culture and religious background.

From table 9.14 it can be seen that the respondents rated the Pakistanis consistently from the third preference to the seventh preference. The mode and median were both just above halfway at the fifth preference. These would indicate that Pakistanis would be rated in the top half of the accepted nationalities.

**Table 9.15: Indian**

Preference	Number of Responses	Percentage of Responses	Score
First	5	1.2	50
Second	30	7.0	270
Third	42	9.9	336
Fourth	49	11.5	343
Fifth	78	18.3	468
Sixth	79	18.5	395
Seventh	75	17.6	300
Eighth	43	10.1	129
Ninth	25	5.9	50
Tenth	0	0.0	0
<b>Total</b>	<b>426</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>2341</b>

Mode: Sixth Preference                      Median: Sixth Preference

**Table 9.16: Bangladeshi**

Preference	Number of Responses	Percentage of Responses	Score
First	14	3.2	140
Second	39	8.9	351
Third	61	13.9	488
Fourth	47	10.7	329
Fifth	63	14.4	378
Sixth	75	17.1	375
Seventh	65	14.8	260
Eighth	42	9.6	126
Ninth	30	6.8	60
Tenth	3	0.7	3
<b>Total</b>	<b>439</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>2510</b>

Mode: Sixth Preference                      Median: Fifth Preference



The Indians achieved their highest preferences in the mid to lower section of table 9.15. This was backed by the mode and the median both being the sixth preference. These would indicate that the Indians were among the lower favoured of the nationalities.

As illustrated in table 9.16 the Bangladeshi community received scores in excess of 10% from the third preference to the seventh preference. The mode was the sixth preference while the median was the fifth preference. This would point to a lower half overall ranking for the Bangladeshis.

**Table 9.17: Filipino**

Preference	Number of Responses	Percentage of Responses	Score
First	29	6.7	290
Second	56	12.9	504
Third	32	7.4	256
Fourth	47	10.9	329
Fifth	34	7.9	204
Sixth	43	9.9	215
Seventh	65	15.0	260
Eighth	96	22.2	288
Ninth	30	6.9	60
Tenth	1	0.2	1
<b>Total</b>	<b>433</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>2407</b>

Mode: Eighth Preference      Median: Sixth Preference

From table 9.17 it is apparent that the ranking for the Filipinos was more scattered with scores in excess of 10% being recorded as high as the second preference and as low as the eighth preference which was in fact the mode, at 22.2%. The median was also low at the sixth preference. However the scattered rankings allowed the Filipinos to achieve a higher than anticipated rating from the mode and median scores.

The higher rankings, shown in table 9.18, for the Koreans were all in the lower range of preferences with the first score of over 10% at the sixth ranking. The mode at the ninth preference and the median at the seventh preference all indicate a low acceptance of Korean nationals.



**Table 9.18: Korean**

Preference	Number of Responses	Percentage of Responses	Score
First	25	6.0	250
Second	33	7.9	297
Third	29	6.9	232
Fourth	28	6.7	196
Fifth	35	8.4	210
Sixth	53	12.7	265
Seventh	54	12.9	216
Eighth	68	16.3	204
Ninth	92	22.0	184
Tenth	1	0.2	1
<b>Total</b>	<b>418</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>2055</b>

Mode: Ninth Preference

Median: Seventh Preference

**Table 9.19: Based on Qualifications**

Preference	Number of Responses	Percentage of Responses	Score
First	31	37.3	310
Second	1	1.2	9
Third	1	1.2	8
Fourth	0	0.0	0
Fifth	1	1.2	6
Sixth	0	0.0	0
Seventh	0	0.0	0
Eighth	0	0.0	0
Ninth	2	2.4	4
Tenth	47	56.6	47
<b>Total</b>	<b>83</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>384</b>

Mode: Tenth Preference

Median: Tenth Preference

Although 37.3% of respondents who indicated a preference for 'qualifications', in table 9.19, gave a first preference to this category, the low number of respondents and the mode and median being the tenth preference indicate little support for this category.



Table 9.20: Overall Position for Each Preference

		Ranking of Preferences									
	Total Score	First	Second	Third	Fourth	Fifth	Sixth	Seventh	Eighth	Ninth	Tenth
Sudanese	4362	48.7	19.9	11.3	7.3	4.5	2.3	2.2	0.0	0.6	0.0
Yemeni	3228	12.5	19.5	16.5	15.1	8.8	6.1	5.1	6.7	6.5	2.9
Egyptian	3029	15.2	16.2	12.9	10.1	7.2	8.0	6.1	7.0	18.0	12.9
Pakistani	2584	2.1	5.5	11.3	16.5	22.4	16.2	11.9	6.7	6.8	1.4
Bangladeshi	2510	2.6	7.9	12.7	10.1	14.3	17.6	15.8	10.9	8.8	4.3
Filipino	2407	5.4	11.4	6.7	10.1	7.7	10.1	15.8	24.8	8.8	1.3
Indian	2341	0.9	6.3	8.8	10.5	17.6	18.5	18.2	11.1	7.4	8.6
Palestinian	2302	2.1	6.5	13.6	14.6	9.3	8.7	11.7	15.2	15.1	0.0
Korean	2055	4.7	6.7	6.1	6.0	7.9	12.4	13.1	17.6	27.2	1.3
Qualifications	384	5.8	0.2	0.2	0.0	0.2	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.6	67.1
<b>Total</b>	<b>25202</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Mode for each preference indicated in red



#### 9.4.1. COMPARISON BETWEEN DIFFERENT NATIONALITIES

In order to analyse the differences between the different nationalities in respect of the ranking of the preferences by the respondents, the results are summarised in table 9.20. The nationalities are shown in order according to the score which each country was accorded as discussed in section 9.4. The percentage of responses which each nationality received for each preference is recorded in the rest of the columns.

From the table it is obvious that the Sudanese are ranked well ahead of any other nationality with a total of 4362. They also achieved the highest rankings in both the first and second preferences. The migrant workers from Yemen and Egypt were closely rated in second and third place respectively. Yemen was the favourite ranking for the third preference. The next group of countries were fourth-placed Pakistan and fifth-placed Bangladesh with scores of over 2500. The Pakistanis were top-ranked in the fourth and fifth preferences. In sixth position were the Filipinos who were top-ranked in the eighth preference. Next came the Indians and the Palestinians, with only a small difference in their scores in seventh and eighth position respectively. The Indians were top-ranked in the sixth and seventh preferences. The Koreans achieved the lowest score for a nationality, finishing in ninth place. They were also highest in the ninth preference. The 'qualification' based category received a very small total, achieving only 1.5% of the total score. The few votes cast in this category, only 70 out of a possible 574, would indicate that this option was not popular.

In order to attempt to draw out possible reasons for the preferences which the students expressed, the overall score for each nationality was cross-referenced against ethnicity (Arab or non-Arab), as well as religion (Muslim or non-Muslim). The results are displayed in Table 9.21.

From table 9.21 a close relationship is apparent, with three of the four Arab countries being placed in the first three preferences. Secondly the relationship of Muslim has proved significant, with the Muslim nations taking the first five rankings. The only anomaly to these findings is the position of the Palestinians which as an Arab and mainly Muslim entity ought to have been ranked above Pakistan which is non-Arab but



Muslim. It is difficult to understand the reasons for this anomaly but they may be related to the political situation in which the Palestinians find themselves. Although the Filipinos were the top-ranked in the ninth preference, the higher scores in the second and third preferences allowed them to outscore the Palestinians. The reason for this could be due to high numbers of Filipinos in the low-status employment of domestic service, which would not be thought appropriate for Arab Muslims such as the Palestinians.

**Table 9.21: Nationality by Predominant Ethnicity and Religion**

Nationality	Score	Arab or Non-Arab	Muslim or Non-Muslim
Sudanese	4362	Arab	Muslim
Yemeni	3228	Arab	Muslim
Egyptian	3209	Arab	Muslim
Pakistani	2584	Non-Arab	Muslim
Bangladeshi	2510	Non-Arab	Muslim
Filipino	2407	Non-Arab	Non-Muslim
Indian	2341	Non-Arab	Non-Muslim
Palestinian	2302	Arab	Muslim
Korean	2055	Non-Arab	Non-Muslim
Qualifications	384	Non-Arab	Non-Muslim

Apart from the position of the Palestinians, it is apparent that the students generally preferred to allow Arab Muslims to be employed in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia. The second grouping were the non-Arab Muslims of Pakistan and Bangladesh. At the bottom of the list were the non-Arabs and Non-Muslims of the Philippines, India and Korea. Few opted for ‘qualifications’ only. This would indicate that the students are aware of the potential problems to the religion, culture and identity of Saudi Arabia that could be caused by the employment of foreign nationals, in particular those of an alien culture and religion.

**9.5. CONCLUSION**

The findings from questions fifteen to seventeen inclusive indicate that the majority of the students believe that there are too many foreigners employed in the public and private sectors in Saudi Arabia. This would seem to reduce the need for the manpower



planners to stress the fact. However, the acknowledgement that a problem exists does not necessarily result in the problem being solved. Those officials charged with the successful implementation of the Saudization programme still need to make specific what job fields Saudi students should focus upon if employment of foreign labour is to be minimised.

By the use of cross-tabulation the research was able to raise some tentative conclusions about what the students perceived to be the problems of relying on an extensive foreign workforce. These included the danger to the security of the Saudi state, as evidenced by the higher than average response to the question of employment of non-Saudis as 'excessive' from those who sought employment in the military/security services.

On the other hand the cross-tabulation also highlighted some of the difficulties of implementing the programme. It was considered that the employment of non-Saudis was necessary in the categories of 'private enterprise' and 'professional' (doctor or dentist). The respondents considered that Saudi Arabians are considered not to have the necessary discipline to work in the private sector. Furthermore the hours faced by the doctor or dentist do not suit the family-orientated lifestyle of the average Saudi citizen. These demonstrate the need to alter attitudes within Saudi Arabia if the Saudization programme is to be successfully implemented. This was acknowledged by Hussain al-Hazemi, the General-Trustee of the Manpower Council, who stated that:

"there was a need to stress the loyalty of the people to the country as a strategic aim to develop the manpower plan in the Kingdom, through education, religion, culture and the media. This strategy has been approved by the Minister of the Interior as Chairman of the Manpower Council."<sup>13</sup>

The need to alter the balance between self-interest and the interests of society in general were raised by Badri in his study on the development in the UAE when he argued that "the ability to make a compromise between the personal and public interest...[is an] important element that would facilitate the process of development."<sup>14</sup> Al-'Udaili, acknowledged the role that education can play in altering the attitudes to



the balance between personal and public interest and therefore the behaviour of society, when he stated that:

“the effect of education as an element of development is not confined only to its role in the preparation for work, the effect of education in moulding of personality and the preparation of citizenship are not less significant in their effectiveness towards development, than the direct preparation for exercise of crafts.”<sup>15</sup>

The need to extend the role of education from merely the provision of knowledge and the provision of skills for use in the work place to the preparation of students to play a positive role in society in general and the development of Saudi Arabia in particular has been recognised by the government recently when they established a new course in the curriculum which is entitled ‘Citizenship’.

Question sixteen introduced the idea of reserving certain categories of employment exclusively for Saudi Arabians. The initial analysis of the evidence seemed to suggest that this was a popular idea but that the motivation for the acceptance of the idea was based on self-interest. However, closer analysis by the use of cross-tabulation suggested that this was not the case; rather there was a genuine recognition of the need to implement the programme of Saudization. Although, there seems to be a wide scale acceptance of the need to reduce the dependency of the Saudi Arabian economy on foreign workers, there is a reluctance for the students to become actively involved, especially in jobs which are vital to the success of the plan but which lack the status sought by the average graduate.

The widespread acceptance of the dangers to the unique culture and identity of Saudi Arabia were amply illustrated by the responses to question seventeen. When offered the choice of various nationalities as workers in Saudi Arabia, the students preferred those nationalities which were both Muslim and Arab. In second place were those countries which were Muslim but non-Arab. Finally the countries at the bottom of the list were those that were both non-Muslim and non-Arab. The findings were underlined by the fact that the choice of ‘expert’ without regard to the nationality or religion finished at the bottom of the choices by a wide margin.



Overall, this chapter has emphasised that there is an acceptance of the need to reduce the number of foreigners working in the public and private sectors in Saudi Arabia. However, the cultural aspects of Saudi Arabian society, along with the perceptions of the graduates make the implementation a difficult process. Furthermore the dangers to the culture and identity of Saudi Arabia can be reduced by employing those nationalities which are essentially Arab and Muslim.

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## **ENDNOTES**

<sup>1</sup> Nehme, M., "Saudi Development Plans between Capitalist and Islamic Values", Middle Eastern Studies, vol. 30, no. 3, July 1994, p.642.

<sup>2</sup> Al-Omam, A., "Sittat Malâyn Hadjm al-'djnabiyyah fi al-Mamlakah" [Six Million Non Saudi Workers in Saudi Arabia], Asharq Al-Awsat, no.5919, 11th Feb 1995, pp.1 and 4.

<sup>3</sup> Ministry of Interior, "Al-'Amalah al-'djnabiyyah wa Barnamadj al-Sa'wadah" [The Non-Saudi Workers and Saudization Programme], Asharq Al-Awsat, no. 6217, 6th Dec 1995, p13

<sup>4</sup> Kingdom of Saudi Arabia Ministry of Finance, Central Department of Statistics, Al-Natâ'idj al-Awaliyyah li Ti'dâd al-'Âm li Sukkân wa al-Masâken li 'âm 1413 [The Preliminary Results of the 1992 Census of the General Population and Housing], (Riyadh: Central Department of Statistics, 1993), p.2.

<sup>5</sup> Al-Ghaith, M. and Al-Mashugh, M., Tawdhîf al-'Amâlah al-Muwâtanah fi al-Qitâ' al-Khâs: Al-Mu'wiqât wa al-Hulûl [Recruitment of Indigenous People in the Private Sector: Obstacles and Solutions], (Riyadh: IPA, 1996), p.329.

<sup>6</sup> The dramatic increase in the figure from 1994 would indicate that there is a potential fault in the reporting of this amount. The figure should be closer to the two previous years.

<sup>7</sup> The difference between the 1993 and 1994 figures and the shortfall in the actual total would indicate that this figure should be approximately 250,000.

<sup>8</sup> The totals given in the paper do not agree for any year. The difference for 1995 would appear to be related to the number of sectors for which figures are unavailable.

<sup>9</sup> Shaw, J.A. and Long, D.E., Saudi Arabian Modernization: The Impact of Change on Stability, (Washington, D.C: Praeger, 1982), p.45.

<sup>10</sup> Al-Ghaith and al-Mashugh, op. cit., p.330.

<sup>11</sup> Al-Ariefy, A.M., "The Civil Service of Saudi Arabia and the Manpower Shortage: A Study of the Need and Impact of non-Saudi Manpower in Civil Service", (M.A thesis University of California State, Chico, 1987).

<sup>12</sup> "Qadhiyyat al'Usbû'" [The Issue of the Week], Al-Yamamah Magazine, no. 1328, 44th year, 26th Oct 1994, p.31.

<sup>13</sup> Al-Hazemi, H., "Ghars wa Takrîs Mafâhîm al-'Intimâ' wa al-Muwâtanah: 'Istrâtidjiyyat li Tanmiyat al-Quwa al-Bashariyyah" [Implementation and Reinforcement of Concepts of Loyalty and Citizenship: A Strategy for Manpower Development], Al-Jazeera Newspaper, no 9082, 10th Sept 1997.

<sup>14</sup> Badri, A., "Development in the U.A.E.: The Ideal Versus The Real", Unpublished paper presented in al-Wuas Creative Study Competition, 1995, section 4.2

<sup>15</sup> Ibid., section 4.2



## CHAPTER TEN

### CONCLUSION

#### 10.1. INTRODUCTION

The final chapter of this thesis will be split into two sections. In the first section there is a brief summary of the problem, the objectives of the research, and the positive and negative findings of the research. The second section contains recommendations based on the findings.

#### 10.2. SUMMARY

The sudden influx of oil income from the beginning of the 1970s allowed Saudi Arabia to embark on a huge programme of development, through a series of five-year development plans. A major side effect of this programme was the need to import foreign workers and personnel, from the unskilled to the executive levels. Through each successive plan, the need for non-Saudi workers steadily increased. The numbers have grown to such an extent that, in 1997, the best estimates were that one in three of the population was non-Saudi. This high concentration of foreigners produces a number of problems. Firstly, in terms of the economy, the expatriate workers remit around SR57bn (\$15bn) a year to their home countries. This flood of money represents a loss to the local economy, as it can not be recycled within the country. A further economic problem is that unemployment which, although it is not acknowledged through the announcement of unemployment figures, nevertheless occurs through, for example, graduates waiting to be accepted for jobs within the public sector. The waiting time can amount to a period of up to two years. While economic reasons are considered to be the primary ones raised by Saudi Arabia having so many migrant workers, there are two other dimensions. The first is the threat to the internal security of the country caused by the large number of workers whose allegiance is to another country. Secondly, there is the impact which the migrants have on the unique culture and traditions of Saudi society.



The influx of foreign workers was made necessary by the lack of a skilled, trained and educated workforce. This was recognised clearly in the Third Development Plan, of 1980-85, when the plan discussed changing the objectives of the education sector from a general target of increasing literacy throughout Saudi Arabia to a specific target of producing the quality and quantity of students required for the developmental needs of the Kingdom. The plan also introduced the concept of Saudization, which was and remains an attempt to systematically reduce the number of foreign workers by replacing them with suitably-qualified Saudi citizens. To date this programme has been unsuccessful, with the numbers of foreign workers set to rise to over seven million by the end of the current Development Plan in 2000. It is important to note that the Saudization programme is not only a way forward to overcome the manpower shortage but is also undoubtedly a defensive measure against foreign manpower.

In view of the government's recognition of the importance of the education sector to overcome the problem of a large foreign workforce, the objectives of the research were to analyse the involvement of the education sector in both the Development Plan and the Saudization programme. As stated in chapter one, the route to producing recommendations to assist in overcoming the problem was through the answering of three questions. The main question to be addressed was: "how has the higher education sector contributed to the shortage of skilled indigenous people in the manpower of Saudi Arabia, in general, and Assir, in particular?" The two further questions were: "have the five Five Year Development Plans helped or hindered the higher education sector to overcome the problem?" and "what are the problems associated with the higher education sector which prevent the government from implementing the Saudization programme?"

The methods used in the research were threefold. The primary sources of evidence came from a series of nineteen interviews with top executives in the Assir region, whose expertise covered the fields of education, development and Saudization, and from the structured questionnaire to 574 final year students at the two universities in Assir region. Another source of material was government reports and existing literature which was related either directly or indirectly to the objectives of the study.



The results of the thesis can be divided into factors which assist the education sector to promote the successful implementation of the Saudization programme within the context of the continuing development of Saudi Arabia, and factors which block progress to the overall goal of Saudization. Both the positive and negative factors highlighted by the study can be further classified into general systemic elements, specific systemic elements, societal elements and general personal elements. The general systemic factors arise from how the education system interrelates with the development plans and the requirements of the Saudization programme. The specific systemic factors are those which can be directly related to the education sector, such as the provision of subjects and resources. The societal factors include elements such as tradition, as well as those factors which can be attributed to society as a whole. Finally, the general personal factors are derived from the questionnaire to the final year students and are considered to be applicable not only to the population of Assir, but also to the population of Saudi Arabia.

#### **10.2.1. POSITIVE ELEMENTS IN THE PRESENT SYSTEM**

In terms of the classification discussed above, there was a lack of positive elements at the general systemic level. However, at the specific systemic level there was the comparative success of the General Secondary School (Literary) in producing pupils who wished to study the natural sciences. In this type of school almost half the students went on to study the natural sciences, whereas in the Religious Schools and the General Secondary Schools (Natural Sciences) the percentages were non-existent or low. In general, natural science subjects, for example engineering, computing and medical studies, are considered to be more appropriate to the needs of the Saudi Arabian development plans, than humanities/social science subjects. However, it is acknowledged that certain humanities/social subjects, such as economics and business administration, are also important for the future of the economy.

Turning to the classification of society, three positive elements were found to exist. From both the interviews and the questionnaires there was found to be a well-developed awareness of, and a strong support for, the ideas of the Saudization programme. This support should ensure that any moves to implement changes in the



education sector with an aim to meet the requirements of Saudization ought to have the backing of both students and civil service personnel. Secondly, the interviewees were aware of the high number of foreign workers in Saudi Arabia, and more importantly of the problems, both real and potential, which the employment of the migrants could raise. The survey respondents also appeared to be aware of the real and potential problems. The evidence for this argument emerged strongly when the preferences for which nationality of foreign worker should be employed within the Kingdom. In this case the answer was overwhelmingly in favour of those nationalities which were predominantly Arab and Muslim, followed by non-Arab Muslims, then non-Arab non-Muslims. Finally, from the interviews it was apparent that civil service personnel were aware of the opposing pressures of Saudization and development on manpower.

Turning to the general personal level five positive elements emerged from the study. In the first place, the study found that contrary to popular belief and a considerable volume of the literature on the subject, Saudi Arabian students were in favour of studying the natural sciences, if given the chance. This important evidence arose from the analysis of the questionnaires when it was established that, the majority of the students would wish to change their field of study to the natural sciences. The problem appears not to be the Saudi Arabian students' preference for the humanities and social sciences but how the education system is biased against the study of the natural sciences. This particular point will be developed further in the following sections. The fact that students would prefer flexibility to change course is another positive point for the development planners, especially in light of the findings that the majority of the humanities/social science students anticipated difficulty in obtaining a job after graduation. Other positive elements found during the study included the fact that the majority of students were open to influence both to study at university and as to which career they choose. In theory these findings ought to mean that the students could be diverted towards choices which were suitable for the needs of the development of Saudi Arabia and the Saudization of the workforce. Finally, the study also disproves another myth perpetuated by writers on Saudi society, namely that Saudi graduates preferred to work in areas where their families lived. While 205 of the 574 students did express a preference to work where their families lived, 75.6% of rural students



expressed a preference to work in urban areas and 55.6% of urban students expressed a desire to work in the rural areas. Although the latter figures may be discouraging for the planners, in that the majority of work is to found in the urban environment, the potential degree of flexibility of the workforce is surprising in view of the previous literature.

### **10.2.2. NEGATIVE ELEMENTS IN THE PRESENT SYSTEM**

#### **10.2.2.1. The General Systemic Level**

At the general systemic level, the study uncovered three elements which, although not directly associated with the education system, nevertheless create an environment which constrains the chances of the sector being able to produce the quality and quantity of students needed by the development plan. The first element is the conflict of interests between the need for the continuing rapid development of Saudi Arabia, which by necessity involves the import of migrant workers, and the desire to implement the Saudization programme, which aims to reduce the number of foreign workers. The lack of direction caused by the conflict does not create a stable environment for those concerned with planning in the education sector. The second negative indirect element is the lack of productivity of Saudi Arabians, which is caused by the system of guaranteeing each graduate a job in the public sector. The graduate knows that a job is available without regard to the level of performance. Furthermore, it is very difficult to sack a native in the public sector. The result tends to be a lack of effort, with managers preferring to employ foreign workers because of their higher productivity. The final indirect element is the lack of productivity in the public sector as a result of the imbalance between the benefits associated with public sector and private sector employment. Among the perceived benefits of a public sector career are pensions, holidays, promotion, pay, security of employment, less hours and a comfortable environment. None of these perks are available in the private sector.

The major general systemic level factor directly affecting the education sector was the lack of co-ordination between the education sector and the development planners. The result is that although the budget for education continues to increase along with the



literacy rates in Saudi Arabia, the output of the education sector, e.g. the number of humanities/social science degrees as compared with natural science/technical and vocational degrees, does not match the requirements of either the development plan or the Saudization programme. There is a considerable shortage of natural science graduates, especially in fields such as medicine, and also trained personnel in the technical and vocational fields. Closely related to this aspect is the freedom of both the Ministry of Education and the Ministry of Health to import foreign labour without permission from any central authority. The freedom may in part be an effect of the shortage of skilled labour but is definitely a contributory cause of the excess of foreign workers in Saudi Arabia. A further result of the lack of co-ordination is the appropriateness of the present training provided by the various specialist agencies. Among the faults perceived by the interviewees was that the training was too theoretical, too general, not taken seriously by the participants and delivered in the wrong locations.

#### **10.2.2.2. Specific Systemic Level**

The negative elements which can be directly laid at the education sectors' door include the high proportion of humanities/social science students to natural science students, a ratio of three to one. A number of reasons interact to create this imbalance, despite the preparedness of many Saudi students to study the natural sciences. The reasons include the imbalance in resources in favour of the humanities/social sciences, the need for higher grades to study the natural sciences, and the perceived difficulty and length of time required in studying the natural sciences.

A second problem of the education system is that the secondary schools, in particular the Religious Schools and the General Secondary Schools (Natural Sciences), fail to produce sufficient pupils who are interested (in the first place) in studying the natural sciences at university. The final negative element is the lack of liaison between schools and universities and the lack of counselling for students at secondary school, which results in the students being unaware of the full range of possibilities which exist in both subjects to study and later job opportunities. The lack of information for students



moreover means that the student is unaware of the importance of certain jobs to the successful implementation of the Saudization programme.

#### **10.2.2.3. Societal Negative Elements**

The negative elements associated with societal reasons are the perception that certain jobs are unsuitable for Saudi citizens, the perception that foreign workers only pose a problem at the skilled and managerial levels of employment, and the perception that what is important is a university degree and not the type of degree which is achieved.

The perception that certain jobs are unsuitable for Saudi Arabians has resulted in a lack of interest in the study of technical and vocational degrees, as well as certain natural science subjects. The attitude has resulted in the acceptance of foreign workers filling positions such as laboratory workers. In turn, the debate about the danger from over-reliance on foreign workers has become expressed in terms only of skilled and managerial workers. The chances to successfully implement the Saudization programme are therefore seriously diminished.

The status acquired by those who gain a degree is universal throughout Saudi Arabia. While this perception encourages students to attend university, there is a tendency to acquire the easiest degree possible, as society does not tend to differentiate between degree types. This position affects and also is affected by the larger number of courses on offer to humanities/social science students in comparison to those offered to natural science students.

#### **10.2.2.4. General Personal Negative Elements**

The study has highlighted three negative elements at the general personal level. The first of these factors is the existence of voluntary unemployment by graduate students who are prepared to wait for periods of up to two years to be offered a job in the public sector rather than attempting to gain employment in the private sector, even if only on a temporary basis. Although voluntary unemployment can not be attributed as the direct responsibility of the education sector, it represents a waste of resources of



the sector and therefore should fall, at least in part, on that sector to help find a solution.

Secondly, the study discovered that the students did not seem to have any clear objectives about the type of subject they wished to study, its links with employment, and the needs of both the development plan and the Saudization programme. The result is that many students seem to drift into unproductive areas of study.

Finally, the perceptions of the value of a university education differ between students and employers. The latter group feel that the graduates are not suitably prepared to work in the non-academic environment, while the former felt the opposite. Once again, the gap in perceptions causes problems in terms of the successful implementation of the Saudization programme.

### **10.3. RECOMMENDATIONS**

It is apparent from the above summary that there are a considerable number of areas which require to be addressed before the education sector can successfully assist with the implementation of the Saudization programme, at the same time allowing Saudi Arabia to continue with the Five Year Development Plans. This section will discuss recommendations which can be made in the light of the analysis of the data gained from the interviews, the questionnaires and the secondary material. In order to produce a logical series of suggestions, the latter will be classified into those which require to be addressed at the level of the state, those which require to be addressed by the university education sector and finally those which require to be addressed by secondary schools in the education sector.

It should be noted that these suggestions are based on the assumption that certain types of jobs can be considered more vital to the interests of Saudi Arabia than others. These jobs should be prioritised by the Saudization planners.

Before detailing the recommendations, it is necessary to invoke a word of warning. The reader should be aware that the process of Saudization is by necessity a long-term



programme, which will not be successful overnight. It has been noted that after two decades of effort in this direction the number of foreign workers continues to climb. Indeed, the present Five Year Development Plan forecasts that by 2000 the figure will have risen to over 7 million. This figure should be compared with an estimated native population of Saudi Arabia of approximately 12 million. Of the latter, around 50% are under the age of 15, and are consequently unable to enter the workforce. Furthermore, the numbers of people not considered as part of the workforce are increased by the old, the infirm and women. The time factor is also a major factor in dealing with the education sector. As discussed previously, a change which is taken today may not result in tangible benefits for up to 20 years. Despite the long term aim, the continuing problems posed to Saudi Arabia as a result of its reliance on migrant means that the situation must be addressed immediately and with conviction. The aim is therefore twofold. Firstly, to arrest the increase in foreign numbers, then to ensure that the numbers decrease faster with each successive year.

#### **10.3.1. STATE LEVEL RECOMMENDATIONS**

At the level of the state there are two types of recommendation, which although different for analytical purposes are inter-dependent for practical purposes. Both types of proposals require to be implemented, for without both the outcome will not be successful. The first type of suggestion concerns changing the present system, while the second is infinitely harder but still necessary and involves changing the attitudes of society in general.

The study will firstly discuss the changes to the present system which are recommended. The major alteration must be the increased liaison between the three elements concerned: the development planners, the Saudization planners and the education sector. For this liaison to be successful there must be an increase in the amount of relevant, accurate and up-to-date information available to all personnel involved. Furthermore the central authorities must establish whether development or Saudization is more important to the Kingdom. For unless development is made accountable to Saudization there can only be a continued increase in the number of foreign workers.



In order to help implement an effective Saudization programme, the following should form the foundation:

- high-level ministerial responsibility and accountability for manpower;
- inter-ministerial liaison that permits the manpower aspects of all public policy to be taken into account;
- good channels of communication between central government and the Kingdom's universities, as well as institutes of administration, with sensitive consultation of professional opinion;
- adequate central government funding to support the implementation and research components of Saudization programme at national and regional, with specifically allocated regional funds;
- a national plan for manpower with a set of clearly defined quantified targets (where possible); and
- a mechanism of reporting back to the nation on progress at national and regional level.

In addition there should be a target-manpower centre in Saudi Arabia, not only to forecast and publish studies about manpower, but to execute and implement effectively the Saudization programmes as well as the manpower plan. It is assumed that any development plan requires certain manpower to allow it be implemented. If the existing manpower does not satisfy the requirements, then measures have to be taken to overcome this shortage. The creation of a target-manpower centre would be worth striving for because the centre could be responsible for all aspects of manpower development. This approach would offer a clear way of monitoring progress in the Saudization programmes. In other words a target-manpower centre could offer a way of ensuring more commitment to, and better implementation of, Saudization programmes.

In view of the long-term nature of the programme, it is necessary for those involved to prioritise which jobs should be considered as vital to the needs of Saudization and development. Plans must then be put in place to ensure that the education sector has the necessary resources in terms of manpower and money to ensure that the graduates



can be produced. Thereafter the schools should be required to ensure that the pupils are aware that the appropriate subjects should be studied. Obviously, this exercise can not be carried out in isolation, and a carrot and stick approach should be used to ensure the correct quality and quantity of candidate is forthcoming.

The second change in the system is to alter the present position which guarantees graduates employment in the public sector. The latter system has two damaging effects. Firstly, the system seems to ensure that native productivity is less than that of foreign manpower. Secondly, there is the problem of voluntary unemployment. One method to overcome this state of affairs would be to rescind immediately the promise of the guaranteed job. However, this step would merely increase unemployment among the locals and could be potentially destabilising to the economy and social fabric of Saudi society. Nevertheless, the problem must be addressed in the long-term through a gradual phasing out of the guarantee by allocating a decreasing number of jobs each year. To be able to gain the help of the private sector in this aim would require material benefits to be forthcoming in those private companies which employ Saudi graduates. In the meantime, those students who have not obtained employment immediately should be encouraged to undertake a career that is not necessarily their first choice but one that is more appropriate to the needs of Saudization.

The private sector must also be the focus of the third change in systems recommended by this study. The need to reduce the differences between the terms of employment in the private and public sector must be considered a priority. The gap can be reduced by increasing the protection and benefits of the private sector worker through legislation. At the same time the benefits of the public sector must be reduced on a phased basis. In addition, salary differentials in favour of shortage professions should be increased significantly, thereby giving added incentive to students to enter them. A realistic, but preferably relatively short-term, target for the equalisation of rights and benefits should be set immediately. These steps should introduce a 'sense of interest' in the private sector.

A similar area that requires to be addressed is the imbalance between the specific choice of jobs. There is an urgent need to address the shortfall in public sector jobs such as



medical support or as technicians. Most of the measures discussed in relation to public and private sector employment will also be of use in this aspect, in particular addressing the questions of status, salary and perks. Although in this case the problem that the jobs are considered to be hard, dirty and time-consuming also needs to be addressed. The jobs must be recognised as those vital to Saudization and given extra publicity in an attempt to gain status. For the jobs which are considered to be time-consuming, a method must be found to allow those involved time off to undertake their family duties.

A further change suggested would reduce the waiting time for the employment of graduates by commencing entrance procedures earlier - perhaps one year before the student is due to qualify. This move would allow the Civil Service to employ the student immediately following graduation, rather than up to two wasted years later. The final practical change would be to control centrally the ability of the Ministries of Health and Education, as well as the universities to employ as many foreign workers as they wish. Once again, the change could be phased in, but the ministries and universities would be required to prove the need for any request for employing non-Saudis.

The final element in the state-induced changes is the need to form a plan to reduce the recruitment of non-Saudis which can be achieved through the following procedures:

- determine the objectives and the aims of each organisation according to the development needs in order to avoid any overlap between these organisations;
- determine the accurate number of employees required in each organisation in the public sector in order to avoid any over-staffing;
- implement decentralisation and deregulation in the government agencies to reduce red-tape procedures;
- use new technology to help the people to be more productive and accurate; and
- provide a more flexible recruitment procedure for the Saudis, to avoid any kind of waiting list and give them more chances to work.



Turning to the idea of altering attitudes and perceptions of the Saudi Arabian citizens, the first step is ensure that the promotion of the concept of Saudization is given a main priority by the state. The population must be made aware of the needs of the Kingdom and must understand the economic problem which the expatriate workers create. The aims must also be to alter the prevailing attitudes in Saudi society to overcome the barriers which affect the level of students studying technical and vocational subjects and the natural sciences. To this end, more resources must be employed in putting across the message, using all the media channels available, including newspapers, radio, television, even to the extent of portraying a doctor or a technician as a 'role model' in soap operas, that the Saudi state and therefore its citizens face major problems unless Saudization is successful. A further method could be to use education at primary level, through the class readers, to promote those jobs considered vital to Saudization. By concentrating on the status of a science degree, in a society such as Saudi Arabia, the message is more likely to be achieved.

Similar methods should be used to overcome the problems discussed previously of the lack of distinction accorded to holders of different type of university degrees, the perception that natural science degrees are harder to achieve than those of the humanities/social sciences, the apparent unwillingness of Saudi Arabians to undertake technical and vocational training, and the concept that there are jobs which are inherently unsuitable for Saudi citizens. Due to the religious connotations connected to some of these ideas the help of the religious leaders in the Kingdom should be enlisted.

Finally, as 'service to society' is the main motivation in choice of career, the Saudi Arabian government must implement a plan to raise the awareness of students and potential students that native employment in the private sector at the expense of non-Saudis is indeed a service to society.

### **10.3.2. RECOMMENDATIONS AIMED AT THE UNIVERSITIES**

One of the main priorities of the universities must be to increase the number of students who study for degrees in the natural sciences, in general, and in those subjects



which have been set as a priority by the Saudization planners. Positive and negative methods can be used. If the universities fail to achieve set and agreed targets in the priority fields, then their funding would be reduced. On the positive side one method to achieve this target is to focus on reducing the differences between natural science courses and humanities/arts courses in order to ensure an increase the number of students in the former. The practical changes which can be implemented are equalising the grades required in each discipline and ensuring the subjects which have been prioritised by the Saudization planners receive greater funding and other resources. Allied to this is the need for the universities to overcome the perceptions that certain degrees are harder than others to achieve, by increasing the amount of information to students before they arrive at university.

Prior to enrolling at university, the prospective university students must be advised on the numerous careers possible and the personnel needs in these fields. The increased amount of information to students prior to their enrolling in university links to the third recommendation in this section which is the increased liaison between schools and universities. Each university should ensure that it maintains contact with all the secondary schools in its catchment area by setting up a liaison committee. Visits to the schools by members of the staff of the university to assist students with their course choices would become a necessity.

An important, and in this case easily-initiated change, would be to increase the flexibility by allowing students to alter their chosen subject of study. Constraints would, however, need to be introduced to ensure that no science students were lost to the humanities or social sciences.

Furthermore it is necessary to open more colleges for medical studies and the natural sciences in all the major cities of the country in order to give the students the chance to study these subjects.



### **10.3.3. RECOMMENDATIONS AIMED AT OTHER SECTORS OF EDUCATION AND TRAINING**

The major problem for this sector is to address the problem associated with the lack of success of the General Secondary Schools (Natural Sciences). This problem could be overcome by radically altering the secondary school system by eliminating this type of school. Alternatively, a study should be undertaken to establish the reasons why this type of school significantly under-achieves its Literary counterpart. In the interim the General Secondary School (Natural Sciences) should adopt the timetable used by the Literary schools. Also, the religiously-based secondary schools should ensure that the sciences are given a high priority in their curriculum, with perhaps targets to ensure a certain percentage of their students go on to study the natural sciences.

The secondary schools themselves can also help by offering increased and more informative counselling to their students. In particular they should emphasise the need to study the natural sciences and attempt to break down the perception that the sciences are far more difficult.

The training for jobs presently being undertaken by the IPA and other institutions must be revamped to be more relevant to the needs of the trainee and the Civil Service, as well as be accorded more importance by both the trainers and the trainees. Furthermore the training should take place on-site rather than at distant locations. A scheme to grant students employment at the outset of their courses would allow for those involved to gain practical experience as well as receive on-the-job training.

The private sector in Saudi Arabia should take an interest in vocational education by opening schools and training institutes of better quality. Such a step would have two purposes: first, the private sector knows exactly what its own needs are and could therefore adjust such institutions accordingly; and secondly, such a step would ensure the quality of the graduates since the private sector would be investing money in such a programme and would want, therefore, to be sure that results were beneficial.



Although the study has concentrated on the role of education in the development and Saudization plans in attempt to assess how the sector can best help with the implementation of the two plans, it is recognised that the recommendations made are rather more broadly based than the scope of the study. The writer believes, however, that they follow logically from the analysis in the thesis.



# **APPENDIX ONE**

## **THE INTERVIEW FORM**

### **SECTION ONE**

1. “WHAT IS YOUR OPINION OF THE SAUDIZATION PROGRAMME WHICH THE GOVERNMENT IS TRYING TO APPLY?”

2. “WHAT KIND AND LEVEL OF OCCUPATION DO THE NON-SAUDIS OCCUPY IN YOUR ORGANISATION?”

3. “DO YOU THINK THERE ARE MORE FOREIGN WORKERS IN THE PUBLIC SECTOR THAN ARE REQUIRED TO FULFIL THE COUNTRY’S DEVELOPMENT NEEDS?”

4. “DO YOU THINK THE NUMBER OF FOREIGNERS WILL INCREASE OR DECREASE IN THE KINGDOM, IN GENERAL, AND IN ASSIR, IN PARTICULAR, IN THE NEXT FIVE OR TEN YEARS?”

5. “DO YOU THINK THE TRAINING PROGRAMMES WHICH ARE HELD BY THE INSTITUTE OF PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION AND SOME INSTITUTIONS ASSOCIATED WITH DIFFERENT MINISTRIES COULD IMPROVE THE PERFORMANCE OF THE EMPLOYEES IN THE PUBLIC SECTOR? ALSO COULD THESE PROGRAMMES HELP THE GOVERNMENT TO IMPLEMENT THE IDEA OF SAUDIZATION, AND IF SO, HOW?”

6. “WHY DO THE SAUDI STUDENTS PREFER TO STUDY HUMANITIES AND ARTS RATHER THAN SCIENCE SUBJECTS?”

7. “DO YOU THINK THERE IS A DIFFERENCE BETWEEN THE PERFORMANCE OF NON-SAUDI WORKERS AND THE SAUDI WORKERS,



AND IF THERE IS A DIFFERENCE, WHY AND AT WHAT LEVEL DOES THE DIFFERENCE EXIST?”

8. “WHAT IS THE BEST METHOD FOR THE GOVERNMENT TO ENCOURAGE STUDENTS TO ACCEPT WORK IN TECHNICAL AND VOCATIONAL OCCUPATIONS?”

9. “DO YOU THINK THAT TRADITION PLAYS A MAJOR ROLE IN CAUSING THE SHORTAGE OF MANPOWER AND THE FAILURE TO ATTRACT STUDENTS TO ENROL IN THE VOCATIONAL AND TECHNICAL SCHOOLS?”

10. “DO YOU THINK STUDENTS SHOULD HAVE SPECIFIC AND SPECIAL TRAINING AFTER THEY GRADUATE FROM THE UNIVERSITY SO AS TO PREPARE THEM FOR WORK IN THE GOVERNMENT OR IN THE PRIVATE SECTOR?”

11. “WHY DO SAUDIS PREFER TO WORK IN THE PUBLIC SECTOR RATHER THAN IN THE PRIVATE SECTOR?”

12. “WHY DO WE HAVE SOME PEOPLE SEARCHING FOR JOBS OR ON THE WAITING LIST; AND HOW MANY DO YOU ESTIMATE ARE SEARCHING FOR EMPLOYMENT, NOT FINDING IT AND FOR HOW LONG HAVE THEY BEEN WAITING?”

13. “ACCORDING TO AL SHARQ AL AWSAT (11th FEBRUARY 1995) THERE ARE AROUND 6 MILLION NON-SAUDIS WORKING IN SAUDI ARABIA. DO YOU THINK THIS NUMBER IS CORRECT AND IF SO IS IT TOO MUCH OR TOO LITTLE FOR OUR DEVELOPMENT?”

14. “IN THE PUBLIC SECTOR, WE HAVE ACCORDING TO AL-SHARQ AL-AWSAT AROUND 600,000 FOREIGN WORKERS HOLDING DIFFERENT POSITIONS IN MANY DIFFERENT AGENCIES AROUND OUR COUNTRY. DO YOU THINK THIS NUMBER IS ACCURATE AND IF SO SHOULD IT GO



UP OR DOWN IN THE FUTURE, WITH PARTICULAR REFERENCE TO ASSIR?”

## **SECTION TWO**

15 “SINCE YOU ARE THE DIRECTOR-MANAGER OF THE CIVIL SERVICE BUREAU IN ASSIR REGION, PLEASE GIVE US DETAILS ABOUT THE RECRUITMENT PROCEDURES OF BOTH SAUDIS AND NON-SAUDIS IN THE WORKFORCE”

## **ADDITIONAL MATERIAL**

16. “IF YOU HAVE ANY COMMENT OR SUGGESTIONS, OR ANY IDEA THAT I HAVE NOT ADDRESSED, PLEASE MAKE IT KNOWN TO ME AND THIS WILL HELP THE RESEARCHER TO REACH THE AIM OF THE RESEARCH.”



## الجزء الاول

- ١ - "ما هي خططكم لتطبيق فكرة السعودة التي تسعى الدولة لتطبيقها؟"
- ٢ - "ماهي الوظائف المشغولة بغير سعوديين في ادارتكم وكذلك ماهي المستويات التي يعملون بها؟"
- ٣ - "هل تعتقد أن هناك متعاقدين أكثر من اللازم يعملون في القطاع العام وذلك للقيام بالأعمال التي تتطلبها التنمية في المملكة؟"
- ٤ - "هل تعتقد أن عدد العاملين الأجانب سوف يزداد أو ينقص في المملكة على العموم وفي منطقة عسير بالخصوص في الخمس أو العشر السنوات القادمة؟"
- ٥ - "هل تعتقد أن برامج التدريب التي يعقدها معهد الإدارة العامة وكذلك بعض المعاهد التابعة لبعض الوزارات لها دور في تحسين الأداء الوظيفي لدى العاملين في القطاع الحكومي وكذلك هل هذه البرامج سوف تساعد على تطبيق برامج السعودة التي تسعى الدولة اليها. وإذا كان ذلك ممكن فكيف؟"
- ٦ - "لماذا يفضل الطلاب السعوديون دراسة العلوم الإنسانية والأدبية على الدراسات العلمية؟"
- ٧ - "هل تعتقد بان هناك فرق بين الإنتاجية لدى الموظف السعودي وغير السعودي وإذا كان هناك فرق فلماذا وفي أي حقل هذا الفرق واضح؟"
- ٨ - "ما هي الطريقة المثلى التي ترى من الممكن أن تتبعها الدولة لتشجيع الطلاب في قبول الأعمال المهنية والفنية؟"
- ٩ - "هل تعتقد أن العادات تلعب دورا بارزا في حصول النقص في القوى العاملة وكذلك في عدم إقبال الطلاب في الانخراط في الدراسات الفنية والمهنية في المعاهد المخصصة لذلك؟"



١٠- "هل ترى أنه لابد من إعطاء الطلاب المتخرجين من الجامعة دورات تدريبية دقيقة ومتخصصة وذلك بقصد تأهيلهم للعمل في القطاع الحكومي وكذلك القطاع الخاص؟"

١١- "لماذا يفضل السعوديون العمل في القطاع الحكومي على القطاع الخاص وما هي الحقول التي يفضلونها في القطاع العام من خلال خبرتك؟"

١٢- "لماذا لدينا بعض الأفراد يبحثون عن أعمال أو على قائمة الانتظار وإذا كان ذلك فكم عدد الذين يبحثون عن عمل ولم يجدوا وما هي الفترة التي ينتظرونها؟"

١٣- "بناء على ما ورد في جريدة الشرق الأوسط يوم السبت الموافق ١١ فبراير ١٩٩٥ م أن في السعودية ستة ملايين أجنبي يعملون في ميادين مختلفة هل تعتقد أن هذا الرقم صحيح وإذا كان ذلك الرقم صحيح ألا ترى أن هذا زائد عن اللازم أو أقل من المطلوب وإذا كان رأيك بأن ذلك الرقم يعتبر كثيراً فما هو الحل السريع في رأيك لحل هذه المشكلة؟"

١٤- "يوجد في القطاع الحكومي حوالي (٦٠٠٠٠٠) أجنبي يعملون في مستويات مختلفة وفي أجهزة مختلفة في جميع مناطق المملكة هل تعتقد بصحة هذا الرقم وهل هذا العدد سيزداد أو ينقص في المستقبل وخاصة في منطقة عسير؟"

## الجزء الثاني

١٥- "باعتبارك المدير العام لفرع ديوان الخدمة المدنية في منطقة عسير أرجو إعطائي بعض التفصيل عن كيفية توظيف القوى العاملة من السعوديين وغير السعوديين؟"  
(هذا السؤال كان موجة لمدير عام فرع ديوان الخدمة المدنية في مدينة عسير).

## معلومات إضافية

١٦- "إذا كان لديك أي ملاحظة أو اقتراح أو فكرة لم أتطرق لها أرجو تدوينها وتوضيحها للباحث وذلك للوصول إلى الهدف المنشود من وراء هذا البحث."



APPENDIX TWO

UNIVERSITY STUDENTS QUESTIONNAIRE FORM

A- PERSONAL BACKGROUND

UNIVERSITY

COLLEGE

DEPARTMENT

1- Where does your family live?

- a. In a rural area
- b. In an urban area


2- Type of secondary school attended.

- a. General secondary school (literary)
- b. General secondary school (natural sciences)
- c. Intensive secondary school
- d. Islamic institute
- e. Theological secondary school
- f. Holy Quran memorising secondary school




3- What subject are you studying?

- a. Islamic law (shari'a)
- b. Principles of religion (usul al-din)
- c. Economics
- d. Arabic language
- e. English language
- f. Public administration
- g. Business administration
- h. Accounting
- i. History
- j. Geography
- k. Education and Teaching Method
- l. Psychology
- m. Medicine
- n. Mathematics
- o. Physics
- p. Chemistry
- q. Biology
- r. Sociology
- p. Other


Please give details.....



4- What was the main reasons for your choosing to go to university?

- a. Parents' wish
- b. To obtain specialised knowledge for a specific vocation
- c. To strengthen the basis on which application would be made for a range of job opportunities
- d. Interest in the subject
- e. Other


Please indicate .....

**B- REASONS FOR CHOOSING YOUR SUBJECT**

5- Why did you choose the subject you are studying?

- a. Interest in the subject
- b. Job opportunities and training for a profession
- c. Lack of alternative
- d. Other


Please give details .....

.....

6- Would you have preferred to be studying a different subject?

- a. Yes
- b. No




7- If yes what kind of subject would you have preferred to study from the following subjects? (Mention only your first choice )

- a. Engineering
- b. Medical sciences and support
- c. Agriculture
- d. Computer science
- e. Business administration
- f. Accounting
- g. Technical and vocational
- h. Veterinary sciences
- i. Social sciences
- j. Other


Please give details .....

**C- EMPLOYMENT OBJECTIVES**

8- After graduation would you like to work in the:

- a. Public sector
- b. Private sector




9- After graduation what job would you like to obtain? Please number the first and second choices

- a. Private enterprise (running your own business)
- b. Farmer
- c. Civil service
- d. Technical worker
- e Medical support
- f. Military or security service
- g. Teacher
- h. University teacher or researcher
- i. Professional (doctor or dentist)
- j. Other


Please give details .....

10- What causes your job choice? Give the most important reason only

- a. Salary offered
- b. Service to society
- c. Family advice and pressure
- d. Prospect of job satisfaction
- e. Prospect the status acquired
- f. Other


Please give details .....

11- Where do you prefer to work:

- a. Urban areas
- b. Country areas




12- Have you already arranged a job for when you graduate?

a. Yes

b. No


If the answer is (yes); state the nature of the job .....

13- Do you expect to obtain a reasonable job fairly easily?

a. Yes

b. No


14- Do you think that the education you have received in the university equips you properly for the job you want to fill?

Very good

Good

Adequately

Bad

Very bad


**D- THE ATTITUDE TO EMPLOYMENT OF NON SAUDIS**

15- Do you see the employment of non-Saudis in Saudi Arabia at the moment as:

a. Excessive

b. Necessary

c. Inadequate




16- What if any categories of employment should now be reserved to Saudis exclusively? (Put tick for every category which you think should be received for Saudis)

- a. Private business
- b. Civil service (administration)
- c. The professions
- d. Technical support in the public sector
- e Civil service (clerical)
- f. Farming labour
- g. Industrial and service labour
- h. Domestic service
- i. Other


Please list .....

17- In the employment of non-Saudis; which of the following nationalities do you think should be given preference (rank in order of preference ) :

- 1- Egyptian
- 2- Palestinian
- 3- Yemeni
- 4- Sudanese
- 5- Pakistani
- 6- Indian
- 7- Bangladeshi
- 8- Philippine
- 9- Korean

Or: makes no difference; provided the qualifications are the best.




If you have any comments or suggestions please state here

Thank you for your response and co-operation



هذه الاستبانة خاصة بطلاب المرحلة النهائية في جامعة الامام محمد بن سعود الاسلاميه و  
جامعة الملك سعود / فرع أبها.

أولاً: المعلومات الشخصية

الجامعة : .....

الكلية : .....

القسم : .....

١- مكان النشأة :

☐ المدينة : .....

☐ القرية أو الريف : .....

٢- الثانوية التي حصلت عليها :

☐ ثانوية عامه (قسم علمي) .....

☐ ثانوية عامه (قسم أدبي) .....

☐ الثانوية المطوره .....

☐ ثانوية المعاهد العلميه .....

☐ ثانوية تحفيظ القرآن .....

☐ ثانوية دار التوحيد .....



٣- ماهو التخصص الذي تدرسه :

- ☐ ١- الشريعة .....
- ☐ ٢- أصول الدين .....
- ☐ ٣- الاقتصاد .....
- ☐ ٤- اللغة العربية .....
- ☐ ٥- اللغة الانجليزية .....
- ☐ ٦- الاداره العامه .....
- ☐ ٧- ادارة الاعمال .....
- ☐ ٨- محاسبه .....
- ☐ ٩- التاريخ .....
- ☐ ١٠- الجغرافيا .....
- ☐ ١١- تربيه و طرق تدريس .....
- ☐ ١٢- علم نفس .....
- ☐ ١٣- الطب .....
- ☐ ١٤- الرياضيات .....
- ☐ ١٥- الفيزياء .....
- ☐ ١٦- الكيمياء .....
- ☐ ١٧- الأحياء .....
- ☐ ١٨- الاجتماع .....

١٩- آخر أرجو توضيح ذلك .....

٤- ما هو السبب الرئيسي في اختيارك الذهاب للدراسه في الجامعة : ( الرجاء اختيار سبب واحد فقط )

- ☐ ١- رغبة الوالدين .....
- ☐ ٢- الحصول على تخصص معين لوظيفه معينه .....
- ☐ ٣- لتقوية الأساس الذي يمكنني من التقدم لعدد من الوظائف المتاحة .....
- ☐ ٤- الرغبة في المجال الأكاديمي .....

٥- آخر أرجو توضيح ذلك .....



## ثانياً: أسباب اختيار هذا التخصص

٥- لماذا اخترت هذا التخصص الذي تدرسه ؟ (الرجاء اختيار سبب واحد فقط )

- ١- نرغبك في هذا الموضوع أو التخصص ..... ☐
- ٢- الفرص الوظيفية و التدريب من أجل المهنة ..... ☐
- ٣- لأنه ليس هناك بديل آخر ..... ☐
- ٤- آخر أرجو توضيح ذلك .....

٦- هل كنت ترغب في دراسة تخصص آخر؟

- ١- نعم ..... ☐
- ٢- لا ..... ☐

٧- اذا كانت الإجابة على السؤال السابق بنعم ، فما هو الموضوع الذي كنت ترغب دراسته من الموضوعات التالية؟ (أرجو ذكر الرغبة الأولى فقط)

- ١- الهندسة ..... ☐
- ٢- العلوم الطبية و المساعدة ..... ☐
- ٣- الزراعة ..... ☐
- ٤- الحاسب الآلي ..... ☐
- ٥- ادارة الأعمال ..... ☐
- ٦- المحاسبه ..... ☐
- ٧- تقني أو مهني ..... ☐
- ٨- بيطري ..... ☐
- ٩- العلوم الإجتماعيه ..... ☐

١٠- آخر أرجو توضيح ذلك .....

## ثالثاً: الهدف من العمل

٨- هل ترغب العمل بعد التخرج في:

- ١- القطاع الحكومي ..... ☐
- ٢- القطاع الخاص ..... ☐



٩- ما هو العمل الذي تحب أن تحصل عليه بعد التخرج؟ (من فضلك حدد رغبتين ثم ضع الرقم (١) امام الرغبه الأولى ثم (٢) امام الرغبه الثانيه في المربع المقابل )

- |                          |                                     |
|--------------------------|-------------------------------------|
| <input type="checkbox"/> | ١- أعمل لحسابي الخاص .....          |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | ٢- الحقول الزراعي .....             |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | ٣- الخدمة المدنيه .....             |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | ٤- العمل الفني .....                |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | ٥- الطب المساعد .....               |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | ٦- الجيش أو الأمن .....             |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | ٧- التدريس .....                    |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | ٨- التدريس في الجامعه أو باحث ..... |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | ٩- مهني (طبيب أو طبيب أسنان) .....  |

١٠- آخر أرجو توضيح ذلك .....

١٠- ماهي أسباب اختيارك للعمل؟ (الرجاء وضع السبب الأكثر أهميه فقط)

- |                          |                                       |
|--------------------------|---------------------------------------|
| <input type="checkbox"/> | ١- مقدار الراتب .....                 |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | ٢- خدمة المجتمع .....                 |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | ٣- نصيحة و ضغوط الأسره .....          |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | ٤- توقع الرضا الوظيفي .....           |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | ٥- توقع الحصول على مكانة مرموقه ..... |

٦- آخر أرجو توضيح ذلك .....

١١- أين ترغب أن يكون مكان عملك؟

- |                          |                             |
|--------------------------|-----------------------------|
| <input type="checkbox"/> | ١- في المدينه .....         |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | ٢- في القرية أو الريف ..... |



١٢- هل حددت العمل الذي ترغب فيه قبل التخرج؟

١- نعم ..... ☐

٢- لا ..... ☐

إذا كانت الإجابة بنعم أرجو توضيح ذلك العمل .....

١٣- هل تتوقع بعد التخرج الحصول على عمل مرض و بسهولة ؟

١- نعم ..... ☐

٢- لا ..... ☐

١٤- الى أي مدى تشعر أن التعليم الذي تلقيته في الجامعة قد أعدك الإعداد الكافي لكي تقوم بالعمل الذي ترغب فيه ؟

١- جيد جداً ..... ☐

٢- جيد ..... ☐

٣- مقبول ..... ☐

٤- ضعيف ..... ☐

٥- ضعيف جداً ..... ☐

#### رابعاً: الإنطباع عن العمالة الأجنبية

١٥- هل ترى أن العمالة الغير سعودية الموجودة في البلد الآن ؟

١- زائدة عن اللازم ..... ☐

٢- ضرورية ..... ☐

٣- غير كافية ..... ☐



١٦- أي من المجالات التالية يمكن سعودتها (شغلها بسعوديين) بطريقة نهائية (ضع اشاره في المربع امام القطاعات التي ترى امكانية قصرها على السعوديين فقط)

- ١- القطاع الخاص ..... ☐
- ٢- الخدمة المدنية (الوظائف الإدارية) ..... ☐
- ٣- الأعمال المهنية (الطب ، التدريس) ..... ☐
- ٤- الأعمال المساعدة الفنية في القطاع الحكومي
- (فني كهرباء ، فني سباكه ، أعمال النسخ) ..... ☐
- ٥- الخدمة المدنية (الأعمال الكتابية) ..... ☐
- ٦- الأعمال الزراعية ..... ☐
- ٧- الأعمال الصناعية ..... ☐
- الخدمة العامة (عمال ، سائقون ، خدم) ..... ☐
- ٩- آخر أرجو توضيح ذلك .....

١٧- في حالة استخدام العماله غير السعوديه أي من الجنسيات المدونه ادناه ترى لها أفضلية التشغيل؟ (الرجاء ترتيبها حسب الأفضليه)

(المصريه - الفلسطينيه - اليمنيه - السودانيه - الباكستانيه - الهنديه - البنغلاديشيه -  
الفلبينيه - الكوريه - أو لافرق بينها اذا تساوت المؤهلات)

- ١- ..... ☐
- ٢- ..... ☐
- ٣- ..... ☐
- ٤- ..... ☐
- ٥- ..... ☐
- ٦- ..... ☐
- ٧- ..... ☐
- ٨- ..... ☐
- ٩- ..... ☐
- ١٠- ..... ☐



أرجو اذا لديك أي تعليق أو ملاحظه أو اقتراح تدوينه في هذه الصفحه

﴿ أشكرك على حسن تعاونك واجابتك على هذه الأسئله ﴾



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